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RAISING CHILDREN SCHOOL LEAVERS NUNAVUT



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ON OUR COVER:

Dominick Daly O'Meara (1847) oil on canvas, 75.0×61.8 cm. Collection: National Gallery of Canada, Ottawa.

About the artist:

Théophile Hame! was born in Ste. Foy, Lower Canada in 1817. At the age of 17 he entered the studio of Antoine Plamondon, where he served his apprenticeship learning drawing and painting. Hamel later went to London, England and then to Rome, where he studied at the Academy of St. Luke. When he returned to Quebec in 1846 he concentrated mainly on painting portraits. This profession took him to

Hamilton, Kingston, Toronto and New York. Hamel was later commissioned by the Quebec government to paint portraits of members of the Baldwin-Lafontaine ministry and speakers of the Legislative Council and Legislative Assembly in Toronto, which were later lost in a fire that destroyed the two Quebec parliament buildings. Théophile Hamel died in 1870 at the age of 53.

SOCIAL

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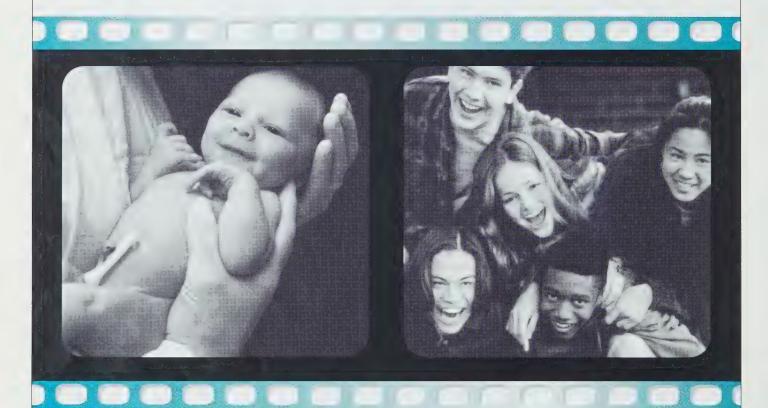
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Canadian Children in the 1990s:

Selected Findings of the National Longitudinal Survey of Children and Youth



ocieties have always valued their children. The way that we raise our kids helps to determine whether they grow into adults who can cope successfully in an increasingly complex world. However, much remains unclear about the effect of children's homes, schools and neighbourhoods on their development.

One of the best ways to assess the impact of a child's environment is through a longitudinal survey that tracks children from infancy to adulthood. The new National Longitudinal Survey of Children and Youth (NLSCY) will follow the same children over many years, collecting data that will help researchers better

understand the factors that influence children's life outcomes.

As the NLSCY is conducted over successive years, the data will provide a "video" that details factors influencing child outcomes over time. In the meantime, however, the first year of data available provides a rich "snapshot" of children's environments in 1994. The brief articles in this series of selected findings from the NLSCY are adapted from the Statistics Canada report Growing Up in Canada, and focus on the families in which children live.

– Ed



OVERVIEW OF CHILDREN AND THEIR FAMILIES

On the whole, the NLSCY data show that Canadian children are physically, emotionally and socially healthy. But averages usually conceal disparities. A number of children are experiencing difficulties that, if neglected, may lead to inferior school performance, unsatisfactory social relationships and, ultimately, hinder their transition to a healthy adulthood.

In 1994, there were almost 4.7 million children under the age of 12 in Canada. They made up 16% of the total population, with the proportion varying slightly from a low of 15% in Quebec to a high of 18% in Alberta. Most of these children (82%) lived in urban centres, almost half of them in large cities of 500,000 or more.

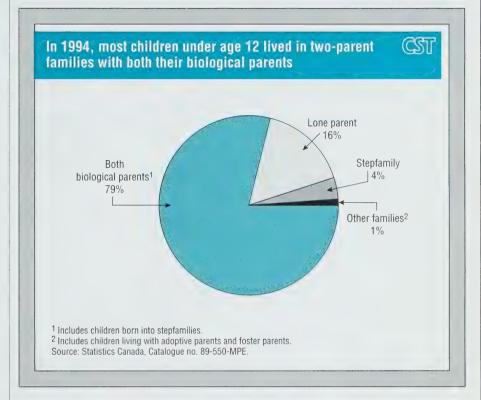
Most children – 79% of those aged 0 to 11 years in 1994 – lived in two-parent families with both their biological parents (this includes children born into stepfamilies). Another 4% of Canadian children lived with one biological parent and a stepparent, and just over 1% lived in other types of families (including adoptive parents and foster parents). Just under 16% of children under 12 lived with a lone parent, the vast majority with their mother.

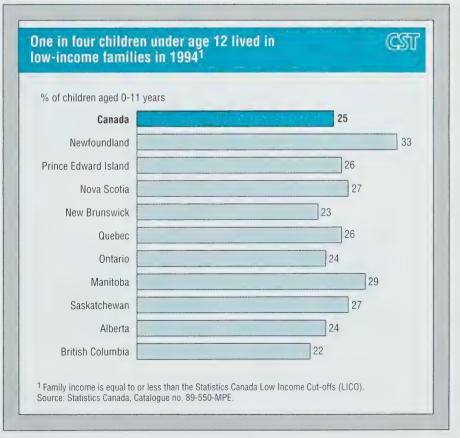
The average child aged 0 to 11 also had 1.2 siblings under the age of 18. However, about 19% of children had no brothers or sisters, with those in Quebec and Newfoundland most likely to be an only child.

Family's socio-economic status is an important influence Many research studies show that children who grow up in low-income families tend to have poorer educational and labour market outcomes than children from more affluent families; therefore, household income is generally considered a basic indicator of child wellbeing. The average annual income of Canadian households with children under 12 was \$49,900 in 1994, but many children lived in households with incomes well below this. One-quarter of Canadian children aged 0 to 11 lived in households with an income below the Statistics Canada low income cut-off (LICO). Children in Newfoundland, Manitoba and Nova Scotia were most likely to live in low-income families.

Parental labour force status is another factor often identified as a key indicator of child well-being, largely because it is a major determinant of household income. Most two-parent families with children

under 12 had at least one employed member. About 57% of children had two working parents, with both parents employed full-time in the majority of dual-earner families; another 33% of





CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS BACKGROUNDER



The National Longitudinal Survey of Children and Youth

Conducted by Statistics Canada on behalf of Human Resources Development Canada, the purpose of the National Longitudinal Survey of Children and Youth (NLSCY) is to derive a clearer understanding of the way children grow and develop. Over the years, the survey will help researchers to identify specific factors that contribute to a child's development, how they contribute, and if these factors can be moderated to ensure a more positive outcome for the child.

The NLSCY collected information on over 22,500 children from newborn to 11 years. New infants will be added to the survey sample in the second, third and fourth cycles (1996, 1998 and 2000). The same panel of children will be interviewed every two years until they reach adulthood. Information is gathered about the children and their families in an interview with the "person most knowledgeable" (PMK) about the child; teachers and principals are asked for their evaluation of the child's development, and 10- and 11-year-olds are also asked about their experiences with friends, family and school.

The complete findings of the first cycle of the NLSCY (1994) are being released in two publications. This series of articles is based on the first Statistics Canada report, **Growing Up in Canada**, released in November 1996. The report covers topics such as child temperament, behaviour and school readiness; basic socio-demographic characteristics of children and their families; and data on how well those families are functioning.

The second report will present results of the questionnaire completed by teachers and principals as well as complete findings of the interview with 10- and 11-year-olds. It will also cover such topics as child health, literacy, activities, and the family and custody history of children.

Definitions used in the NLSCY studies

- ☐ Child a person under the age of 12. Not all data were collected for all children; for example, data about prenatal and newborn health were gathered only for children under 3 years, while data on school experience were collected only for children aged 6 to 11.
- ☐ Person most knowledgeable (PMK) information about the child and the family circumstances was collected in an interview with the person most knowledgeable about the child. In 98% of cases, the PMK was the child's parent, usually the mother.
- ☐ Lone-mother family the child's mother had no spouse or common-law partner living in the household. (Lone-father families were excluded from these studies because they comprised less than 10% of lone-parent families.)

Development scales for children aged 0 to 11 years Most studies in this series use a comprehensive scale, based on a specific set of individual questions, to describe a situation or condition; for example, skills that fall within the normal range for a child at a certain age, or tendency to depression.

- Motor and social development (MSD) for children newborn to 3 years of age. The scale measured different dimensions of motor, social and cognitive development. Questions differed for children at different ages.
- ☐ Receptive vocabulary for 4-year-olds. To estimate a child's verbal ability, the NLSCY interviewer administered the Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test (PPVT) in the children's homes.

- ☐ Overall social relationships measures how well the child gets along with parents, teachers, siblings and other children.
- ☐ **Helping behaviour** measures compassionate behaviour such as comforting a child who is crying or upset, trying to help someone who has been hurt, and offering to help other children do things.
- ☐ **Emotional and behavioural problems** measures one or more of three types of disorders, based on a scale developed from the PMK's responses to a series of questions about the child's behaviour.

conduct disorder – characterized by either physical violence against persons or property, or a severe violation of societal norms.

byperactivity – characterized by inattention, impulsivity and restless motor activity.

emotional disorder – characterized primarily by feelings of anxiety and depression.

one or more behavioural problems – child has at least one of the hyperactivity, conduct or emotional disorders.

- ☐ **Repeated a grade** available for 6- to 11-year-olds only.
- ☐ *Impaired social relationships* child exhibited frequent or constant problems getting along with other children (siblings, friends, classmates), teachers and parents in the six months preceding the survey.
- ☐ One or more total problems child has at least one of the problems described above: that is, one or more emotional or behavioural problems, repeated a grade, or impaired social relationships. Because of the educational component, this variable is available for 6- to 11-year-olds only.

Scales for selected behaviour variables for parents

☐ Parenting practices – PMKs of children aged 2 to 11 years were asked numerous questions about their interaction with the child. Responses were then used to develop scales for four different parenting practices.

Positive interaction – praising the child, playing together, laughing together.

Hostility – PMK often annoyed with child, telling child he/she is bad or not as good as others.

Consistency – disciplining the same way for the same behaviours each time.

Aversive – PMK raises his/her voice when the child misbehaves, takes away privileges, uses physical punishment.

- ☐ **Social support** measures level of support available to parents in terms of people the parent can discuss problems with, ask for advice or depend on for help in an emergency.
- ☐ **Depression** measures the PMK's tendency to exhibit symptoms of depression, such as frequency of feeling "blue" in the preceding week.

¹ The sample excludes children who have been living in institutions for more than 6 months (for example, hospitals, child welfare residential facilities), Aboriginal children living on reserve, and children living in the territories.

children lived in a single-earner family where the working parent had a full-time job. Only 7% of children in two-parent families lived in homes where neither parent was employed. In contrast, 55% of children in lone-parent homes were with a parent who did not have a paid job.

The age of parents is also considered an important influence on child development. This is partly because income and labour force status tend to be quite different for younger and older parents. Among two-parent families in 1994, only 9% of children under 12 had parents under 30 years of age, compared with 35% of children in lone-parent families.

Most children live in a positive family environment Most Canadian children have a good relationship with their parents; for example, the majority of children aged 2 to 11 lived with parents who scored quite high for positive interaction and consistent parenting. Most children aged 4 to 11 years also had a good relationship with their siblings, with parents reporting that only 6% of children did not get along with their brothers and sisters. The great majority also had two or more good friends outside the family; in fact, only 10% of children aged 6 to 11 had only one friend or no friends at all.

Living in a family that receives help and encouragement from friends, relatives and neighbours is also important to a child's well-being. The NLSCY shows that the majority of children live in families where their parents have high levels of social support from people they can talk to or count on in an emergency.

The support parents receive from other adults is important since a parent's mental health can have a profound impact on a child. Some children live with a parent who exhibits symptoms of depression, and the lower the family income, the more likely this is the case. The NLSCY indicates that 17% of children in families with incomes under \$30,000 were living with a parent who showed symptoms of depression. In contrast, only 5% of children in families with incomes over \$60,000 had a parent with such tendencies.

Child care a fact of life for many children In 1994, 32% of children aged 0 to 11 years were in child care for an average of about 21 hours per week

while their parents were working or studying. The largest number of children (34%) were cared for in the home of a non-relative, usually a sitter; 21% were cared for by a relative, such as a grandmother, and another 16% by a child care centre. Another 14% were looked after in their own home by a non-relative, often a sitter. Just under 3%, usually older children, were left on their own or in the care of an older sibling.¹



HEALTHY PREGNANCIES AND HEALTHY BABIES During the first three years

of life, children's brains and nervous systems are growing and developing, and they are acquiring language, motor and social skills. A good foundation for healthy child development thus depends largely upon the mother's health and health habits during her pregnancy, and the baby's health at the time of birth. NLSCY data on children aged 0 to 1 year at the time of the survey (that is, born in 1993 or 1994) show that most Canadian children do get a healthy start in life.

Most women avoid risk behaviours during pregnancy The mother's general health during her pregnancy is important to fetal development. Almost all mothers of children aged 0 to 1 year in 1994 received prenatal care, with most under the care of a doctor (93%). During their pregnancies, almost 7% of these mothers

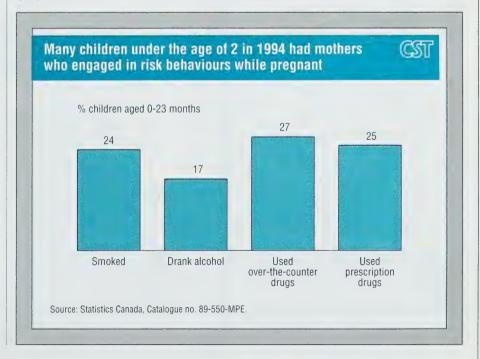
suffered from diabetes, 10% had high blood pressure and 18% reported some other physical health problem.

A baby's health can also be jeopardized by the mother's risk-related behaviours during pregnancy, especially smoking, alcohol and drug use.² Although there is overwhelming evidence that smoking in pregnancy leads to higher rates of low birth weight, stillbirth, prematurity and breathing problems at birth, almost one-quarter (24%) of children under age 2 in 1994 had been born to a mother who smoked while she was pregnant. Furthermore, most of these women (84%) had smoked throughout their pregnancy.

Despite many years of research, it is not known how much alcohol a pregnant woman can safely drink. However, it is known that abuse of alcohol during pregnancy, particularly around the time of conception and the first trimester, can lead to birth defects, learning problems and other developmental delays. The great majority of children (83%) had mothers who reported that they did not drink at all, while 7% were born to women who drank throughout their pregnancy.

Using prescription and over-the-counter drugs such as cold remedies can also affect

- ¹ Due to a questionnaire design problem, the proportion of children in their own care is underestimated.
- ² The data may underestimate the actual incidence of risk behaviours because women could be reluctant to report them.



fetal development, especially in the first trimester. In 1994, the majority of children had mothers who avoided using either over-the-counter (73%) or prescription (75%) drugs while they were pregnant. The NLSCY did not collect information about the use of illicit drugs such as cocaine or marijuana.

Almost one in five newborns needed special medical care at birth Mothers reported that the overwhelming majority of children under age 2 in 1994 (88%) were in very good to excellent health immediately after birth. However, almost 18% had needed special medical care immediately after birth, including intensive care (6%), oxygen support with a ventilator (5%) and transfer to another hospital (1%). For the great majority of those infants requiring medical attention (82%), this special care lasted for no more than a week.

A small percentage of children (6%) were low birth weight babies. Research has shown that babies born weighing less than 2,500 grams risk delays in their development and may face physical limitations and psychosocial problems. Fortunately, several studies have found that when there is no severe disability, the majority of these infants will "catch up" to other children if they are provided with assistance and support.

The majority of mothers are well after delivery. Among women who had given birth in the 12 months preceding the survey, the most common physical complications were bleeding (7%) and infection (5%). Post-partum depression (not including the "blues" of the first week after birth) occurred in 12% of mothers, but lasted more than a month in only 4% of cases.

Most children under age 2 in 1994 (75%) were being or had been breastfed by their mothers. The benefits of breastfeeding are many, and include better development of social behaviours and strong protection against infectious diseases. Mothers usually stopped because of lack of milk or their return to work.

K

PARENTING STYLE MAKES A DIFFERENCE

Parenting practices are critical to children's growth and

development. As such, researchers have long recognized that problems with

parenting contribute to the development of childhood disorders, especially conduct disorders. Much research has focused on the discipline style used by parents, but other studies have found that children's development is also affected by such factors as a parent's insensitivity, failure to monitor the child, lack of emotional availability or warmth, and hostility.

Four parenting practices are examined here. The first three – positive interaction, hostile/ineffective parenting and consistent parenting – measure the general interaction between parent and child, such as praising a child and expressing anger when punishing a child. The fourth practice – aversive parenting – describes the parent's reaction when the child breaks the rules, such as raising one's voice, using physical punishment or taking away the child's privileges.

Parenting style has greatest effect on children's social development Previous studies have identified several key components of children's development as being important to their later success in school and work. These factors include motor and social development, language skills, helping behaviour, and relationships with others (parents, teachers, siblings and other children). All these characteristics are believed to be influenced by the nature of parents' interaction with their children.

On the whole, the NLSCY data indicate that most parents practised more positive

than negative parenting techniques. And although parenting practices were significantly related to most of the child outcomes identified here, they were most strongly associated with children's social relationships and their helping behaviour. For example, a correlation analysis shows that a parent's positive interaction is most highly associated with children's overall social relationships.³ The correlation coefficient is +0.240, where the positive value indicates that the correlation is direct (high scores for positive interaction are related to high scores for social relationships) but the low value indicates that the association is not particularly strong.

In fact, the strongest correlation – a coefficient of -0.487 – is between hostile parenting practices and children's social relationships. The negative value indicates that high scores for hostile parenting are related to low scores for the child's ability to get along with others, and suggests that this type of parenting may be harmful to a child's development.

Effect of risk factors on child outcomes

Parenting practices are only one of a number of influences that affect children over

³ Correlation coefficients range between -1 and +1. Coefficients closer to +1 indicate a strong positive relationship, meaning that parenting practices are closely associated with positive child development. In contrast, coefficients closer to -1 mean that parenting practices have a stronger relationship to negative child development. Values closer to zero indicate a very weak association between parenting practices and child outcomes.

Correlation between parenting practices and selected measures of child development Child development factors Overall social Helping Motor and social Receptive relationships behaviour development vocabulary 2-3 4-11 0-23 2-3 years months years years Parenting practices Positive interaction .240 .165 .179 .228 .175 .069 Hostility -.487 -.021 -.235 .072 -.073 -.035.163 n/a1 .096 .146 Consistency .132 .114 -.320-.167 -.238 n/a1 -.176 -.041 Aversive parenting ¹ Data not collected for children in this age group. Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 89-550-MPE

the long term. Numerous studies have concluded that children's development can be jeopardized by exposure to certain risk factors. The NLSCY data suggest that the risk factors with the greatest impact on children's development are low social support for the family, family dysfunction and parental depression. The effects of other risk factors are generally small, and in some cases, they do not appear to affect outcomes at all. For instance, recent immigrants aged 10 to 11 scored better on many developmental measures than children who have lived in Canada for more than 5 years; meanwhile, children of teenage parents and lone parents had higher scores for helping behaviour than other children.

The impact of individual risk factors may be marginal, but the effect of multiple risks is readily apparent. In 1994, about 4% of children under the age of 12 were exposed to four or more risk factors. Compared with other children, they showed significantly lower development scores for overall social relationships, helping behaviour and receptive vocabulary.

Positive parenting can overcome harm from risk factors However. parenting appears to be a much more significant contributor than risk factors to a child's development. The NLSCY findings show that children in at-risk situations generally had lower development scores than children who were not at risk. But at-risk children who had positive parenting scored at least as high as children in more favourable circumstances but who had negative parenting. Clearly, many factors can affect the child's outcome, but good parenting can counterbalance the negative effects of risk factors.



PROBLEMS OF CHILDREN IN LONE-MOTHER FAMILIES

Lone-parent families account for a growing proportion of families in Canada, and the overwhelming majority of them are headed by lone mothers. In 1994, one in six children under the age of 12 (15%) lived in lone-mother families. Unfortunately, many of these children are considerably disadvantaged compared with those from two-parent families.



Proportion of children aged 0 to 11 exposed to selected risk factors, 1994

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Age group

	0-23 months	2-3 years	4-11 years		
		%			
Risk factor					
Lone parent family	12.3	16.7	16.3		
Teenage parent family ¹	3.3	3.8	4.4		
Low-income family	27.3	27.0	23.4		
Low social support	3.6	3.4	3.4		
Low education of PMK ²	7.0	6.7	7.8		
Depression of PMK	9.2	10.1	9.5		
Dysfunctional family	8.3	9.7	8.2		
Recent immigrant ³	5.1	2.7	2.7		
Four or more children at home	6.9	8.1	12.8		
Difficult temperament	4.4	5.9	n/a ⁴		
Prenatal problem	29.0	n/a ⁴	n/a ⁴		
Four or more risk factors	5.5	4.4	3.4		

Person most knowledgeable about the child (PMK) was less than 20 years old when the child was born.

² Person most knowledgeable about the child (PMK) had no more than Grade 8 education.

³ Child arrived in Canada less than 5 years before the survey was conducted.

⁴ Data not collected for children in this age group. Source: Statisics Canada, Catalogue no. 89-550-MPE.

Kids in lone-mother families at greater risk of having problems

Children from lone-mother families are more likely than children from two-parent families to encounter emotional or behavioural problems, academic and social difficulties. In 1994, 15% of 4 to 11-year-olds with lone mothers suffered an emotional disorder, compared with just under 8% of children with two parents.

Similarly, they were twice as likely to have academic difficulties: of those aged 6 to 11, 11% had repeated a grade and 6% had current problems at school, compared with 5% and 3%, respectively, of children from two-parent families.

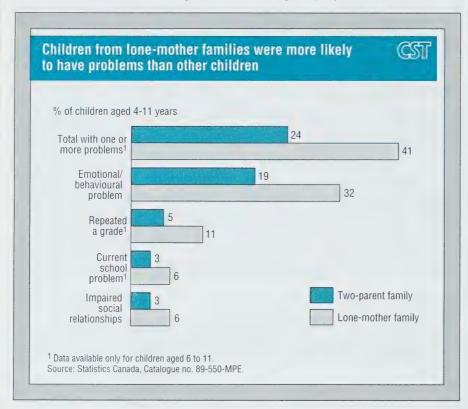
These higher rates of difficulties are often attributed to the fact that many lone-mother families have low incomes. The large majority (71%) of children from

lone-mother families lived at or below the Statistics Canada Low Income Cut-offs (LICO) in 1994; in contrast, only 16% of children with two parents lived in low income families. However, the NLSCY data indicate that having a lone mother places a child at increased risk of emotional and behaviour problems, regardless of the family's income. For example, 17% of children in low-income lone-mother families were hyperactive, compared with 10% of children in lowincome two-parent families. And while the rate was somewhat lower for children in lone-mother families above the LICO (14%), it was still higher than that for children in two-parent families above the cut-offs (10%).

Although both lone-mother status and low income are important risk indicators for childhood problems, analysis suggests that lone motherhood has a stronger influence. The likelihood that a child with a lone mother will have one or more behaviour problems was 1.8 times higher than that of a child with two parents, even when controlling for income differences between families. In contrast, the odds of a child from a low-income family having one or more behavioural problems was only 1.2 times that of a child who is not from a low-income family.

Majority of kids in lone-mother families do not have developmental problems Clearly, children from lone-mother families are at greater risk of having one or more emotional/behavioural, academic or social problems. However, the large majority of children with such problems were from two-parent families simply because most children live with both parents. In 1994, 26% of all children aged 6 to 11 had a problem, and three-quarters of them came from two-parent families.

When considering the findings of this study, it must be remembered that parents' marital and income status may change over the course of their child's development. Some children are only temporarily in a lone-mother or low-income family, and the length of time they remain in these high-risk situations probably plays an important role in the prevalence and severity of childhood problems. Future cycles of the NLSCY will shed more light on this issue.



	Low incom	ne ¹	Not low income		
	Lone- mother	Two- parent	Lone- mother	Two- parent	
		0	/ _o		
Hyperactivity	16.7	9.6	13.7	9.6	
Conduct disorder	19.2	9.2	13.2	7.9	
Emotional disorder	16.7	8.6	11.6	7.3	
One or more behaviour problems	33.5	21.0	27.9	18.3	
Repeated a grade ²	12.8	7.9	9.1	4.1	
Impaired social relationships	7.4	4.6	3.8	2.1	
One or more total problems ²	43.5	28.9	35.8	22.6	



CHILDREN IN STEPFAMILIES

Long-term trends in marriage and divorce have played a

major role in changing family structures since the 1960s. About one in five people who married in the early 1990s had been married before. Some of these remarriages involved children from a previous relationship.

Most stepfamilies today are the result of divorce followed by remarriage. A stepfamilv consists of a married or common-law couple, with at least one child who is the biological or adopted child of one partner but not the other. Stepfamily life is often complicated because the children have different relationships with the adults they live with: a direct relationship (biological or adoptive) with one parent, but an indirect relationship with the other parent (through remarriage or cohabitation). Adding to the complexity is the fact that many stepfamilies are "blended families" they combine children born to the couple with children from previous marriages.

Most stepchildren live in blended families In 1994, almost 9% of Canadian children under the age of 12 were living in a stepfamily. Almost half of them were actual stepchildren, and the others had been born or adopted into stepfamilies. The majority of children in stepfamilies lived in a blended family, which most often included the couple's biological children and the wife's children from a previous relationship (that is, "their children" and "her children").

Most stepchildren lived with their natural mother and a stepfather and very few with their natural father and a stepmother; in fact, stepfathers outnumbered stepmothers five to one. The most common stepparenting relationship was the stepfather-stepdaughter relationship, while the least common was that between a stepmother and a stepdaughter.

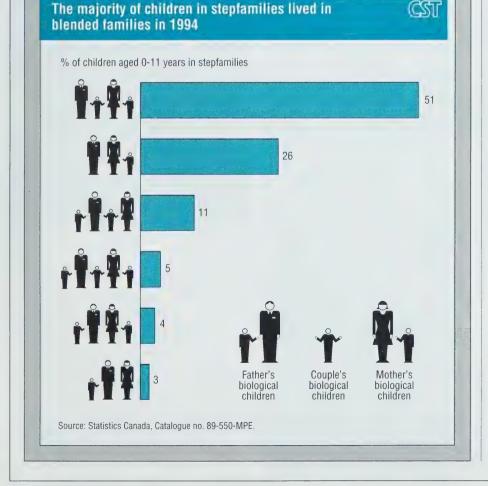
Children in stepfamilies have more trouble with their parents The NLSCY interview with older children aged 10 and 11 provided valuable insights into

children's perceptions of family life. Many 10 and 11-year-old children in stepfamilies do not have a favourable view of their interactions with their parents. They were more likely than children from intact families to say they lack emotional support from their parents, with 33% compared with 27% reporting that their parents did not often express positive feelings for them, for example by smiling, praising them, and offering other signs of approval. Greater differences emerged with respect to erratic punishment (43% of children in stepfamilies and 33% of children from intact families) and difficulty in getting along with parents and siblings in the previous six months (44% and 28%, respectively).

Given the complicated nature of stepfamilies, it is not surprising that parent-child relationships in stepfamilies often seem more problematic than those in intact families. It is not clear if this is because of the way stepparents behave or the way stepchildren relate to them: if children believe that their parents reject them, it may affect the way the children respond to them, regardless of what the parents themselves believe they do. Yet although children in stepfamilies showed more dissatisfaction with their family relationships, the majority of them did report that they have moderate to good experiences with their parents.

- See this issue's **Educators' Notebook** for a suggested lesson plan based on this article.
- This article was adapted from **Growing Up in Canada**, Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 89-550-MPE.

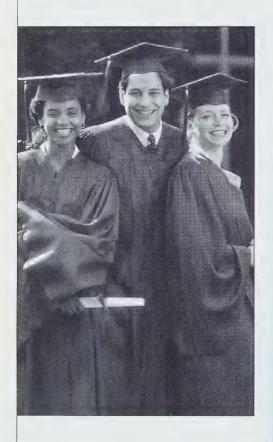
The authors of the studies excerpted here are, David Cheal, Martin D. Dooley, Mark Kelly, Sarah Landy, Ellen L. Lipman, Lynn McIntyre, David R. Offord, David P. Ross, Katherine Scott, and Kwok Kwan Tam.





SCHOOL LEAVERS REVISITED

by Warren Clark



Concern over Canada's economic prosperity has led to recognition that education is an important public issue. An economy that emphasizes new knowledge and technology is increasingly driven by skill, creativity and flexibility. This often means postsecondary education. Some young Canadians, however, never graduate from high school.

While most people who leave high school without graduating do find jobs, they are at a disadvantage in the labour market. They are more likely to be unemployed, to have lower earnings, and be less likely to work full-time all year round than those who completed high school or postsecondary education. 1



ccording to the 1991 School Leavers Survey, 18% of 20-year-olds were school leavers – they had not graduated from high school and were not attending school. Four years later, the School Leavers Follow-up Survey found that some of these young people had gone back to school and had obtained a high school diploma. This reduced the school-leaver rate to 15% among those aged 24 in 1995. Prince Edward Island, Newfoundland and Quebec had the highest proportion of school leavers in 1995, while Saskatchewan and Alberta had the lowest.

More graduates and fewer leavers than in 1991 Young people made various transitions over the four years between the two surveys. In 1995, 14% of those aged 22 to 24 were school leavers, compared with 16% when the respondents were aged 18 to 20 in 1991. Many young adults had difficulty completing high school after leaving. By 1995, only one-quarter of 1991 leavers had completed high school although about half were unhappy about their decision to leave. After leaving, many found work or raised a family. These responsibilities may inhibit some leavers from obtaining their high school diploma. Most of those in school in 1991 (88%) went on to graduate while 10% left without getting a diploma. The outcome of these transitions saw high school graduates increase to 85% in 1995 from 63% in 1991.

High school graduation – the gateway to further education Most high school graduates (80%) pursued further education or training toward a degree, certificate or diploma beyond high school. University education was the most common form of post-secondary education (42%), followed by college/CEGEP (29%).

In contrast, only one in four high school leavers pursued further studies; about half of them in trade/vocational or registered apprenticeship programs that often do not require high school graduation for admission. The employment outlook for graduates from these programs may be less favourable than that of high school graduates who go on to college or university. Statistics Canada's surveys of postsecondary graduates² from the early 1990s show that unemployment rates for trade/vocational graduates were at least double those for college graduates at two and five years after graduation.

Unemployment rates highest among high school leavers In 1995, unemployment rates were lowest among high school graduates who pursued further education. Leaving high school before graduation had a negative impact on young people's employment, particularly among women. Female leavers had the highest unemployment rate (30%) and the lowest percentage participating in the labour force among young people. In contrast, women who graduated from high school and pursued further studies had the lowest unemployment rate in 1995 (10%). Furthermore, their labour force participation equalled that of men.

Family responsibilities of female leavers may have affected their availability for paid work, restricted their job search and influenced their initial decision to leave school before graduation. In

1991, 27% of female leavers had dependent children while 4% of female high school graduates had children.

Between 1991 and 1995, unemployment rates for young people dropped for both leavers and high school graduates. Expectedly, over the four years between surveys, many young people developed their labour market skills through work experience and additional education or training. At the same time, unemployment rates for the entire labour force dropped to 9.5% from 10.4%

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS BACKGROUNDER



School Leavers Follow-up Survey

Between September and December 1995, Statistics Canada conducted the School Leavers Follow-up Survey (SLFS). It re-interviewed 6,300 young people aged 22 to 24 who responded to the 1991 School Leavers Survey (SLS) when they were aged 18 to 20. The SLFS asked them about their education, training and labour market experiences during the initial years after leaving or graduating from high school. Statistics Canada conducted both the 1991 SLS and the 1995 SLFS for Human Resources Development Canada.

Smaller proportion of high school leavers four years later



At one 24

in 1991	in 1995	
(%)		
18	15	
24	19	
25	21	
22	17	
20	16	
22	19	
17	14	
19	14	
16	11	
14	11	
16	13	
	in 1991 (% 18 24 25 22 20 22 17 19 16 14	

At ann 20

Note: The 1991 high school leaver rate was based only on 20-year-olds because substantial proportions of youth aged 18 and 19 were still in high school.

¹ Statistics Canada, **Labour Force Historical Review**, 1995, Catalogue no. 71F0004XCB; **Earnings of Men and Women**, 1994, Catalogue no. 13-217-XPB; and unpublished tables from the Survey of Consumer Finances, 1994.

² 1991 Follow-up of 1986 Graduates Survey and 1992 Survey of 1990 Graduates.

Most young people expect to take further training or education The young people surveyed were very aware of the importance of education and training in achieving their employment goals. Most planned to take additional training or education in the next five years. This varied from 88% of high school graduates who had already pursued further studies, to 72% of high school leavers. Nonetheless, many high school leavers have paid work and family responsibilities that may

(CST By age 22 to 24, most school leavers have not received further education or training Highest level of education or training pursued after high school, 1995 High school High school leavers graduates % None 76 20 Trade/vocational/ apprenticeship 12 7 College/CEGEP 8 29 University 42 Other 2 - Data not reliable enough to publish. Source: Statistics Canada, School Leavers Follow-up Survey, 1995.

restrict their ability to obtain their high school diploma. The absence of a high school diploma may prevent admission to many postsecondary programs that develop skills for today's knowledge- and technology-based labour market. For leavers, acquisition of the skills needed in today's labour market can be an uphill battle.

Most expect to work but some may not realize their expectations Most young people expected paid work to be their primary activity by the year 2000. Work expectations varied from 84% of high school leavers to 92% of high school graduates with further education. If paid-work patterns in 1993 can be used as a guide, some of their plans may not be realized. Statistics Canada's Survey of Labour and Income Dynamics found that about two-thirds of the school leavers in their late twenties or early thirties worked for pay 15 or more weeks during 1993 compared with 94% of those with a university degree. Thus, there may be a gap between leavers' future paid work expectations and the actual work experiences of leavers in 1993.

Although one-quarter of the school leavers from 1991 had graduated by 1995, one in seven young people remained high school leavers at age 24. This places them at a disadvantage in the labour market. Increasingly, high school completion or higher is the minimum level of education needed for entry-level jobs. Furthermore, leavers may lack the basic capabilities needed to retrain and learn new skills. In an economy undergoing technological change and growing international competition, the ability to continue to learn throughout a lifetime is important.

• For more information on 1991 school leavers, see Sid Gilbert and Bruce Orok, "School Leavers," **Canadian Social Trends**, Autumn 1993, **Leaving School**, Statistics Canada and Human Resources Development Canada, Catalogue no. LM-294-07-93E.

	High school leavers	High school graduates		
		Without further education or training	With further education or training	
		%		
Labour force participation rates ¹				
Total	81	85	84	
Men	91	92	84	
Women	63	77	84	
Unemployment rates ²				
Total	21	13	11	
Men	17	14	11	
Women	30	11	10	

• For information on the 1995 follow-up survey, see After high school – The first years – The first report of the School Leavers Follow-up Survey, 1995, Statistics Canada and Human Resources Development Canada, Catalogue no. LM-419-09-96. This publication is also available on the Internet at: http://www.hrdc-drhc.gc.ca.

Warren Clark is an Editor with Canadian Social Trends.



Source: Statistics Canada, School Leavers Follow-up Survey, 1995.

Canada's Newest Territory in 1999 by Cameron W. Stout



anada will have a new Northern territory in 1999, when the present Northwest Territories is divided in two. The eastern two-thirds of the existing Northwest Territories will be known as Nunavut, meaning "our land" in the Inuktitut language of the Inuit. The creation of this new territory is the result of an agreement made between the Inuit and the Canadian Government involving land settlement and aboriginal rights.

The Western region has yet to be named. A number of names are being considered. Among these are "Northwest Territories," "Denendeh" meaning "the land of the people" in the Athapaskan language of the Dene people, and "Nunakput" meaning "our land" in the Western arctic Inuktitut dialect.



Canada has a long history of dividing territories. The current Northwest Territories was once part of a much larger area known as "Rupert's Land and the Northwest Territory." The province of Manitoba was separated from this territory in 1870, the Yukon Territory in 1898 and the provinces of Alberta and Saskatchewan in 1905. In 1912, following the northwards extension of Manitoba,

Ontario and Quebec, the current boundaries of the Northwest Territories were established.

Almost one quarter of Canada's land mass Covering nearly 2,242,000 square kilometres, the Nunavut Territory will represent approximately 24% of all Canada's land mass and 69% of the existing Northwest Territories. Currently, the

Northwest Territories comprise five census divisions (CDs): Baffin, Keewatin, Kitikmeot, Inuvik and Fort Smith. With only minor boundary adjustments, the regions of Baffin, Keewatin and Kitikmeot (excluding the hamlet of Holman) will be combined to form the territory of Nunavut while the regions of Inuvik (including Holman) and Fort Smith will make up the Western territory.

A small but growing population Statistics Canada estimates that 24,900 people lived in the proposed Nunavut Territory in 1995. This compares with about 40,900 people living in the Western territory. Most of Nunavut's population is located in small towns and hamlets spread across Nunavut's large land mass. The largest centres are the town of Iqaluit (population 4,300 in 1995) and the hamlet of Rankin Inlet (population 2,100). In December 1995, Nunavut residents chose Iqaluit to be their capital.

Fertility driving rapid population **growth** Recent population growth rates for Nunavut have been among the highest in Canada. Between 1991 and 1995, Nunavut's population grew 10% - nearly double that of the Western territory (6%). This rapid population growth occurred within each of Nunavut's three Census Divisions. Keewatin's population grew 13%, followed by Baffin at 10% and Kitikmeot at 8%. These growth rates were very high compared to most other parts of Canada. Canada's overall population grew 5% over this four year period. However, provincial and territorial population growth varied considerably, ranging from a drop of almost 1% in Newfoundland to an increase of 11% in British Columbia. Nunavut's rate of growth was exceeded only by that of British Columbia.

Nunavut's high rates of population growth are mainly the result of natural increase. High fertility rates among its Aboriginal population and declining mortality rates have had the largest impact on Nunavut's population growth. Conversely, the larger non-Aboriginal population in the Western territory has lower fertility rates and consequently slower population growth. Interprovincial/territorial migration patterns have played only a minor role in determining Nunavut's growth in

	Estimated 1995 population	% in 1991 with some Inuit origins
Northwest Territories	65,800	37
Nunavut	24,900	84
Baffin CD	13,300	80
Keewatin CD	7,000	88
Kitikmeot CD (excl. Holman)	4,600	87
Communities with populations 1,000 and over:		
Iqaluit	4,300	59
Rankin Inlet	2,100	78
Arviat	1,500	93
Baker Lake	1,400	89
Pangnirtung	1,300	93
Cambridge Bay	1,200	72
Coppermine	1,200	89
Pond Inlet	1,200	94
Cape Dorset	1,100	92
Igloolik	1,100	95
Western territory	40,900	10
Inuvik CD (incl. Holman)	9,600	35
Fort Smith CD	31,300	2
Communities with populations 1,000 and over:		
Yellowknife	18,500	3
Hay River	3,400	2
Inuvik	3,300	33
Fort Smith	2,500	4
Rae-Edzo	1,600	1
Fort Simpson	1,300	2

Sources: Statistics Canada, Demography Division, Estimates Section, Subprovincial population estimates,

and 1991 Census.



Some milestones in the creation of Nunavut



1982: Plebiscite on division

A plebiscite was held in the Northwest Territories to measure public support for dividing the territory into separate entities. A majority (56.5%) of voters answered "Yes" to the question "Do you think the Northwest Territories should be divided?"

1992: Plebiscite to approve boundary

In May of 1992, residents of the Northwest Territories voted to accept the proposed territorial boundary between Nunavut and the Western territory (54% of voters were in favour).

1992: Inuit ratification vote

In November 1992, the Inuit living within the boundaries of the proposed territory of Nunavut voted to accept a land claims agreement with the Canadian Government. Under the agreement, the Government of Canada would transfer a large land mass and a substantial cash settlement (\$1.14 billion to be paid over 14 years); in exchange, the Inuit would relinquish other lands within the proposed Nunavut Territory and their Aboriginal rights to such lands. Nearly 85% of the voting Inuit accepted the agreement. Inuit representatives and the Government of Canada signed the land claims Agreement on May 25th, 1993. The preamble to the Agreement states:

"AN AGREEMENT

BETWEEN:

The Inuit of the Nunavut Settlement Area as represented by the Tungavik Federation of Nunavut

AND:

Her Majesty The Queen in Right of Canada.

WHEREAS the Inuit represented by the Tungavik Federation of Nunavut assert an aboriginal title to the Nunavut Settlement Area, more particularly described in Article 3, based on their traditional and current use and occupation of the lands, waters and land-fast ice therein in accordance with their own customs and usages;

AND WHEREAS the Constitution Act, 1982 recognizes and affirms the existing aboriginal and treaty rights of the aboriginal peoples of Canada, and treaty rights includes rights that may be acquired by way of land claims agreements;

AND WHEREAS the Parties agree on the desirability of negotiating a land claims agreement through which Inuit shall receive defined rights and benefits in exchange for surrender of any claims, rights, title and interests based on their assertion of an aboriginal title;

AND WHEREAS the Parties have negotiated this land claims Agreement based on and reflecting the following objectives:

to provide for certainty and clarity of rights to ownership and use of lands and resources, and of rights for Inuit to participate in decision-making concerning the use, management and conservation of land, water and resources, including the offshore; to provide Inuit with wildlife harvesting rights and rights to participate in decision-making concerning wildlife harvesting;

to provide Inuit with financial compensation and means of participating in economic opportunities;

to encourage self-reliance and the cultural and social well-being of Inuit:

AND WHEREAS the Inuit, in a vote held on November 3 to 6, 1992, approved the Agreement and authorized it to be signed by the duly appointed officers of the Tungavik Federation of Nunavut;

AND WHEREAS following the Inuit ratification vote the Parties completed the text of Article 40 and certain other parts of the Agreement and finalized the text for purposes of clarity, all pursuant to their authority under the Agreement as approved by the Inuit ratification vote;

AND WHEREAS Cabinet authorized the Minister to sign the Agreement;

AND IN RECOGNITION of the contributions of Inuit to Canada's history, identity and sovereignty in the Arctic".1

¹ Indian and Northern Affairs Canada and Nunavut Tungavik Inc., Agreement between the Inuit of the Nunavut Settlement Area and Her Majesty the Queen in Right of Canada, Catalogue no. R32-134/1993E. Reproduced with the permission of the Minister of Public Works and Government Services Canada, 1996.

1993: Parliament – the final step

The Canadian Parliament passed the *Nunavut Act* on June 10, 1993, to bring the Nunavut Territory into legal and political existence by April 1, 1999.

• For more information on the creation of Nunavut, see Information Sheet No. 55, "Creating the New Territory of Nunavut", March 1996, available from the Public Enquiries Kiosk, Indian and Northern Affairs Canada, Ottawa, Ontario, K1A 0H4, telephone (819) 997-0380. This information is also available on the Internet at http://www.inac.gc.ca.

population. More people left both Nunavut and the Western territory between 1993 and 1994 than moved in.

Most people in Nunavut Inuit Perhaps the strongest argument for redefining the Territories is the cultural difference the original Northwest Territories were of

boundaries of Canada's Northwest between the residents in the East and the residents in the West. According to the 1991 Census, 63% of all persons living in

non-Inuit ethnicity, down from 65% in 1986. However, most of the Inuit population is concentrated within the boundaries of the new Nunavut Territory. while most of the non-Inuit population live in the Western territory. In 1991, 84% of the Nunavut population described themselves as either partially or entirely of Inuit descent. Inuit were the majority in all three census divisions that comprise Nunavut. In contrast, they made up only 10% of the population in the Western territory, nearly all on the northern coast of Inuvik region.

Although there is a large concentration in Nunavut, a substantial proportion of Canada's Inuit live in adjacent regions. While over one-third (36%) of Canadians reporting some Inuit ancestry lived in the Nunavut Territory, another 17% lived in Quebec, 7% in the Western territory and 10% in Labrador. The remaining 30% were widely distributed across other parts of Canada. Nunavut residents accounted for over half (53%) of Canadians who reported only Inuit as their ancestry in 1991.

Inuktitut the mother tongue of threequarters of the people of Nunavut

Language is another factor that differentiates the people of Nunavut from residents in the Western territory. In 1991, 74% of people in Nunavut reported Inuktitut as their mother tongue, compared with only 2% in the Western territory.

Among Nunavut residents who could speak a language other than English or French, nearly all spoke Inuktitut. In contrast, many people in the Western territory spoke Athapaskan languages. More people in Inuvik region could speak South Slave (11%) than could speak Inuktitut (9%). While fewer than 1% of people in the Fort Smith region could speak Inuktitut, 9% spoke Dogrib, 6% spoke South Slave and 3% spoke Chipewyan in 1991.

A strikingly large proportion (20%) of people in Nunavut spoke neither English nor French. Almost eight in ten residents could speak English and fewer than 5% of people in Nunavut reported that they could speak French. In comparison, 98% of people in the Western territory could speak English and almost 8% could speak French. Only 2% spoke neither official language.

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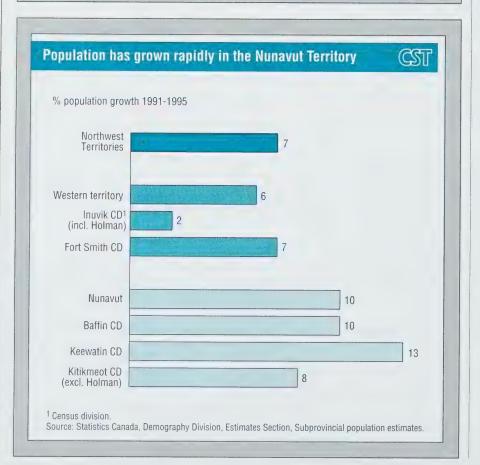
1996 Census



The 1996 Census population information was not yet available when this article went to press. Results will begin to be released in the Spring of 1997. Although the 1996 Census boundaries for statistical areas do not conform to

those of the proposed Nunavut Territory, census division and subdivision information can be used to derive information on Nunavut's population. In this article, values for Nunavut were derived by summing the values for Baffin, Keewatin and Kitikmeot census divisions, less the census subdivision of Holman.

• For information on 1996 Census releases, check Statistics Canada's World Wide Web site on the Internet at http://www/statcan.ca, or call one of the Regional Reference Centres listed in this publication.





New territory of Nunavut covers nearly one-quarter of Canada's land mass



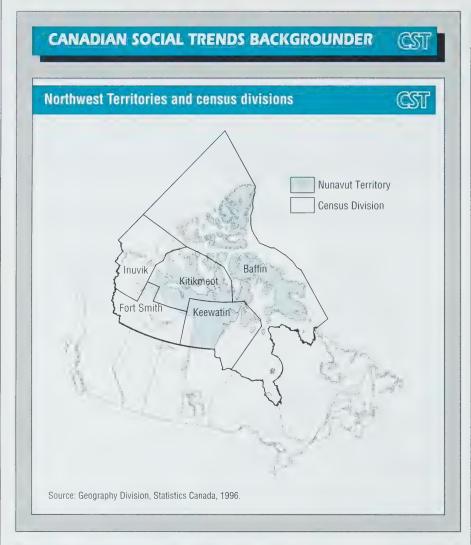
NUNAVUT TERRITORY

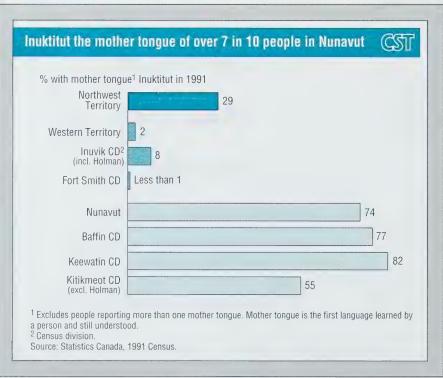


Western territory (name to be determined by 1999)

• Census Subdivision with population greater than 1,000 based on the 1995 population estimates

Source: Geography Division, Statistics Canada, 1996.





Among the 26,800 Canadians who were able to speak Inuktitut in 1991, 63% lived within the boundaries of the proposed Nunavut Territory. The Western territory accounted for only 4% of Inuktitut speakers in Canada, while Quebec accounted for 27%, Labrador 3% and other parts of Canada 3%. In Nunavut, the Inuktitut language is compulsory in elementary schools - evidence of concern that Inuktitut is being spoken less with each passing year. The widespread knowledge and use of Inuktitut, however, underscores the existence within Nunavut of a society sustaining a common Inuit culture.

• For information on the northern economy, see "Employment and industrial development in the North" and "Northern earnings and income" in the Spring 1997 issue of **Perspectives on Labour and Income**, Statistic Canada, Catalogue no.75-001-XPE.

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ransition

n the early days of television, the power of the image was immense and its novelty quickly displaced traditional leisure activities. Soon, families started to congregate around the set, much to the delight of couch manufacturers. Other businesses were delighted, too, as television offered a powerful advertising medium coupled with a rapidly growing base of potential customers. However, times have changed: the number of stations has proliferated, the humble television set has been elevated to a multi-purpose entertainment unit, and other activities make substantial claims on viewers' time. These forces are splitting apart the mass audience on which conventional broadcast television depends. The fragmentation has prompted advertisers to re-direct some of their business elsewhere, thus jeopardizing broadcasters' ability to pay for programming that will lure viewers — and advertising dollars — back to television.

The economics of private broadcasting

Conventional television broadcasting is fairly simple: the television station transmits a radio signal, a TV antenna receives the "off-air" signal and viewers watch the program being "broadcast." The basic economics of private television broadcasting are fairly simple as well. Broadcasters cannot charge for the service they provide the viewer (entertainment), so they charge for the service they provide businesses (advertising to potential customers). In 1995, advertisers bought over \$1.4 billion worth of air-time, accounting for 94% of total revenues reported by private television stations. But in recent years, advertising income has not been growing. Air-time sales for broadcast television were almost stagnant between 1989 and 1995, increasing only 5% after inflation is taken into account. Over the same period, employment declined by 3% and net profits before taxes plunged 167% in two years (to -\$75 million in 1991) before recovering to \$92 million in 1995.²

Broadcasters have often attributed much of their trouble to the introduction of pay-TV and specialty television services such as MuchMusic, The Sports Network, CBC Newsworld, YTV and the Arts & Entertainment network. But the decline of conventional broadcasting was

underway before pay-TV and the specialty channels were launched. To all intents and purposes, it had begun twenty years before.



CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS BACKGROUNDER



A brief history of broadcasting in Canada

The first daily television broadcast in North America was made in 1939, from the site of the World's Fair in New York. The popularity of the new medium was such that, by 1951, there were 12 million television sets in the United States and 90,000 in Canada, all receiving American programming.

Canadian television history began in September 1952, when the Canadian Broadcasting Corporation (CBC) first broadcast from Montreal and Toronto. At that time, there were 146,000 television sets in Canada; three months later, there were 224,000. By 1956, 27 private and CBC-owned stations had sprung up, serving three-quarters of the population of 15 million. All the stations carried more than 50 hours of CBC-affiliated programming a week, almost half of which were Canadian.

Over time, some stations abandoned their CBC affiliation to become independent. Although they became responsible for their own programming and had no share in the CBC network revenues, they were now free to purchase

American programming, the supply of which was cheaper and more varied than the homegrown product. In 1961, almost a decade after television had come to Canada, the CTV Television Network was created. CTV was a "cooperative" of newly licensed stations and older stations that had dropped their CBC affiliation. It did not – and still does not – actually own any stations; rather, it operates through a system of affiliates that carry a certain amount of common programming and share the network's profits.

In the late 1960s, the TVA Television Network was created, a French language network operating in the same manner as CTV. In the mid-1980s, Télévision Quatre Saisons (TQS) network was inaugurated, also operating along similar lines. Smaller networks such as CanWest/Global were also created.

By 1994, there were 101 private television stations in Canada: 33 were affiliated with CTV (18 full and 15 supplementary affiliates), 31 with the CBC (26 English and 5 French), 10 with TVA and 8 with TQS. The remaining 19 private stations were independent.

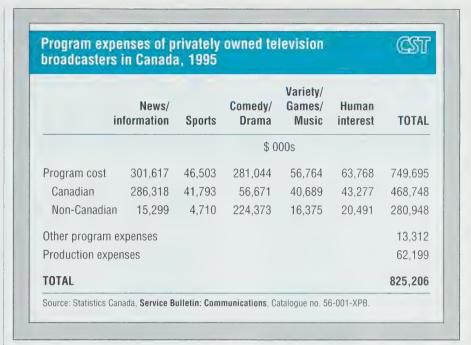
Broadcast television's reign is challenged In the 1960s, cablevision came to Canada. With better reception and more channels than could be plucked out of the air with an antenna, people were willing to pay for cable service. By 1995, 7.8 million households subscribed to cablevision.

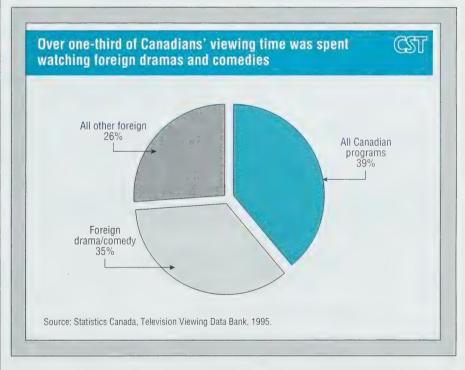
Cable's real challenge to conventional "off-air" broadcasting was not simply that it offered more channels, but that it offered channels that were not "broadcast" over the airwayes at all. Cable made possible the development of pay-TV and specialty services, channels that were distributed directly by cable operators to paying subscribers. Compared to the conventional broadcasting networks, pay-TV and the specialty services are "boutiques" catering to audiences with particular tastes and interests. This feature was attractive to viewers, who could see more of their preferred type of programming; it was also attractive to advertisers, who could target the most desirable audience for their products.

Pay-TV and two specialty services (MuchMusic and The Sports Network) were introduced in 1983. Pay-TV could not carry commercials, but the specialty channels could, and as more specialty services were licensed in 1989 and again in 1995, the Canadian television viewing audience was fragmented still further. As of 1995, there were almost five times more subscribers than in 1989 (5.5 million) to pay-TV and the specialty services. All were competing with conventional broadcasting for much the same audience.

Fighting for the mass audience is costly Holding a television audience depends on programs. And programming, whether produced or purchased, constitutes the largest single operating expense for private broadcasters. It has consumed an ever increasing share of operating revenues over the past decade, rising from an average 49% of revenues between 1984 and 1988 to 54% between 1989 and 1995.³

In 1995, private broadcasters spent \$825 million on programming – about \$469 million directly on Canadian programs, \$281 million on non-Canadian programs, and another \$75 million on production and miscellaneous program costs. The largest share of the money devoted to



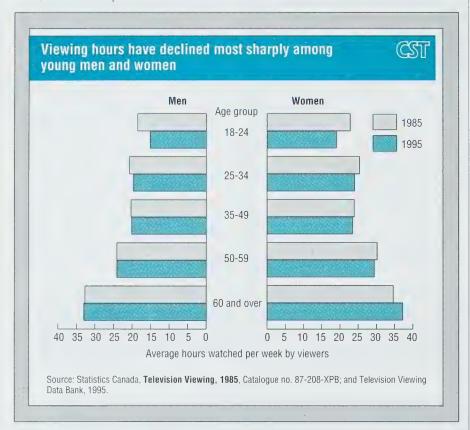


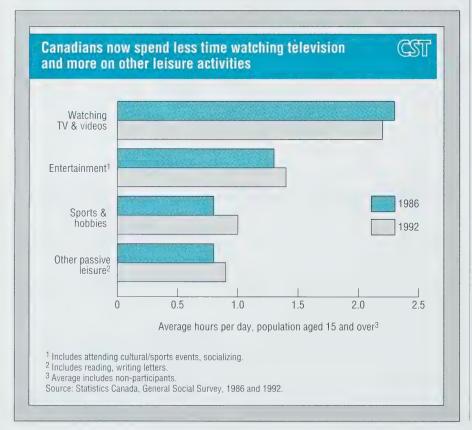
Canadian programs was dedicated to news and information (61%), with drama and comedy (12%) and human interest (9%) accounting for the next largest shares of expenditures. Of the money spent on non-Canadian programming, most (80%) was used to buy dramas and comedies from American networks or independent producers.

The decision to purchase dramas is understandable, since news and public affairs programs do not generate enough revenue to cover production costs, while

- ¹ This article does not discuss the CBC because most of the financial and employment data that the corporation provides cannot be compared to data reported by private broadcasters.
- ² All dollar values in this article have been converted to constant 1995 dollars using the Consumer Price Index (CPI) to adjust for inflation.
- ³ Although the period of increased programming costs coincides with the first wave of specialty television expansion, other factors also affected costs. For example, during this period the Canadian Radio-Television and Telecommunications Commission (CRTC) was pressing private broadcasters to spend more on Canadian programming; meanwhile, the small CanWest/Global Network was aggressively pursuing U.S. programs, thus driving up prices for foreign dramas and comedies.

dramas are money-makers. Buying foreign dramas is doubly tempting because they attract the biggest audiences: in 1995, Canadians spent almost as much time watching foreign comedy and drama (35% of viewing time) as they did watching *all* Canadian-produced programming combined (39%).





People spend more time doing other things Although the new specialty services became direct competitors to broadcasting in the 1980s, not all the decline can be blamed on more specialized channels. VCRs, camcorders and computer games have transformed millions of television sets into multipurpose home-entertainment centres. These leisure activities have eroded broadcasters' power to attract audiences for their shows. The number of hours Canadians of all ages watch television has declined quite steadily in the last decade; in 1995, they spent 23.2 hours per week in front of the tube, down almost one hour from 1985. The decline was most prominent among young Canadian adults: men and women aged 18 to 24 watched much less television – down 3.4 and 3.8 hours per week, respectively - than they had a decade earlier. Young adult viewers are a highly desirable market and if they are not watching television, then advertising budgets will probably be spent elsewhere.4

Data from the 1986 and 1992 General Social Surveys (GSS) on time use suggest that television is becoming less important as a leisure activity. In 1992, it was still the principal daily leisure activity for Canadians aged 15 and over – accounting for about 2.2 hours each day (including watching videos) - but people spent more time doing other things than they did in 1986.5 On any given day of the week in 1992, 37% of Canadians over age 14 were engaged in sports and hobbies (up from 29% in 1986), and 42% in "active leisure" such as attending entertainment events and socializing with friends and family (up from 37%). This increasing participation in other activities is part of a long-term trend. The proportion of Canadians devoting their free time to such pursuits as attending live stage performances and going to movies and

 $^{^4}$ The greatest number of viewing hours are recorded by Canadians aged 60 and over - 33 hours per week for men and 37 hours for women in 1995 – but this age group is not a prime target for advertisers. This may change as the baby boom ages and demand rises for goods and services designed for older consumers.

⁵ The GSS estimate of average viewing time per day is calculated for all survey respondents, whether or not they actually watched TV. Therefore, the GSS daily estimate will not match the weekly viewing times published by the Television Viewing Data Bank, which are calculated for viewers only.



museums has grown significantly since 1969.

Broadcast television faces continuing challenge Canadian pay-TV and specialty services received \$352 million in fee payments from cable companies in 1994, but attracted only about 10% of the potential viewing audience (CRTC, 1994). By contrast, 78% of the potential audience watched conventional stations, yet most broadcasters received little if anything from the cable industry. Several years ago, the Canadian Association of Broadcasters proposed that cable operators pay broadcasters for the right to carry their signals. This idea may appeal to broadcasters but cable subscribers. who would have to pay higher fees each month, might not be so enthusiastic. In the meantime, broadcasters are now allowed to air "infomercials" during the regular broadcast day, but this concession is unlikely to provide the infusion of funds needed to combat advertising revenues lost to competitors and dwindling audiences.

As the next century approaches, a new competitor is emerging: direct-to-home satellite broadcasting. This new technology will inevitably fragment the viewing audience still further and divert more advertising dollars away from broadcast television. Broadcasters wondering about the industry's future are responding to the challenge in different ways. Some are selling up and leaving broadcasting. Some have decided that if they cannot beat the competition, they will join it; in fact, broadcasters have an interest in 16 of the 23 new channel licenses granted by the CRTC in late 1996. Still other broadcasters are buying stations and consolidating operations to cut costs. The future impact of these changes is unclear, but they will be substantial.

Tom Gorman is an analyst with the Science and Technology Redesign Project at Statistics Canada, and **Susan Crompton** is an Editor with **Canadian Social Trends**, Statistics Canada.



The rise of the VCR

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS BACKGROUNDER

Since the early 1980s, VCRs have flooded into Canadian homes. In 1984, only 13% of households had a VCR, but a decade later, 79% owned one. That VCRs are particularly popular among young people is shown in data about usage rates. According to the 1992 General Social Survey, over 90% of Canadians aged 15 to 24 had watched at least one movie on a VCR in the past year, while a much smaller proportion of older Canadians had done so – 63% of adults aged 45 to 59 and only 33% of those aged 60 and over.

On a typical day in 1992, 5% of Canadians over age 14 spent 2.5 hours watching movies on their VCRs. In contrast, 72% of Canadians spent 2.8 hours a day watching television. These statistics suggest that the time devoted to VCR movies would scarcely seem a threat to television. But the most avid consumers of video movies are among the most important markets for television advertisers: younger people and higher-income households.

Households maintained by someone under age 25 were keen renters of video movies (73% of young households), and they also spent the most money on videos, an average of about \$220 in 1992. Slightly older households (maintained by someone aged 25 to 34) were marginally more likely to be video-renters (77%), but they allocated considerably less money, only about \$150.

Video rentals are in greatest demand in high income households. About 81% of households in the top 20% income bracket (highest quintile) spent almost \$165 on video rentals. In contrast, only 25% of households in the lowest income quintile were video-renters, paying about \$100 in 1992.

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The Persistence of Christian Religious Identification in Canada

by Reginald W. Bibby

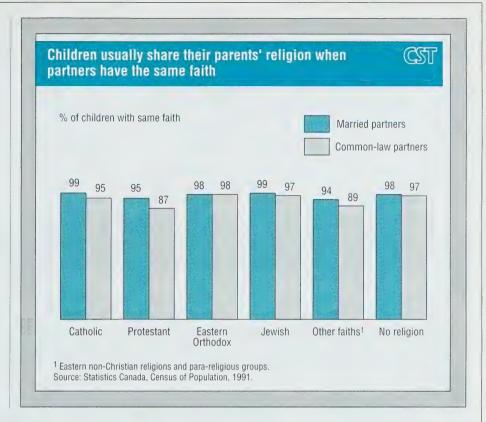
Organized religion in Canada is approaching the next millennium with fewer participants and considerably less influence than it had fifty years ago. About forty years ago, more than half of Canadians attended church services every week; today, that proportion has dropped to less than one-quarter. 1
But despite their declining participation in religious life, most Canadians (87% in 1991) still think of themselves as Catholic, Protestant, or members of other faiths.

This article addresses the paradox of religious affiliation in the absence of religious involvement. Using the 1991 Census (the most recent census to collect data on religion), the analysis focuses on the role that the family and assimilation play in the perpetuation of religious identification.

¹ For a summary of some of the findings on religion's impact socially and individually, see Reginald W. Bibby, **Fragmented Gods**, Toronto: Stoddart, 1987; and **Unknown Gods**, Toronto: Stoddart, 1993.

Parents the key source of religious identification In 1991, 85% of married couples (including common-law) belonged to the same religious group. This tendency is important to religious identification because people who marry partners of the same faith are inclined to pass that faith on to their children. Between 94% and 99% of couples, depending on the faith, reported that their children had the same religious identification. Similarly, parents who do not identify with any religion generally reported that their children had no religion. Thus, when both parents belong to the same faith, religious identification (and non-identification) tends to pass from one generation to the next. In the few exceptions to the rule, parents usually indicated that their children described themselves as having no religion.

Children in interfaith marriages often have their mother's religion Interfaith marriage, including common-law unions, is the principal contributor to differences



CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS BACKGROUNDER



Untangling religious identification and religiosity

In the 1960s, social scientists turned away from the simple, nominal-level measure of religious group identification such as the census question on religion. Instead, they began to focus on more sophisticated objective and subjective measures of "religiosity" – such as beliefs, experiences, and knowledge. Today, however, it is clear that identification with a religious group has importance apart from beliefs, attendance and perceived personal commitment. The sheer tendency to identify with a religious tradition – to remain what might be called an "affiliate" – appears to have some important cultural, psychological, and emotional meanings that need to be understood more clearly.²

Research on the meaning of "identification" in Canada is still in its early stages. One recent attempt to broach this subject, the *Project Canada* survey of 1995, found that "affiliates" of religious groups are not inclined to adopt other religions. Most attach importance to their identification. The survey also found that affiliates would consider being more involved in the activities of their religious groups if they found it worthwhile for themselves or their families.³

Despite their limitations, census data on affiliation are potentially valuable because they help to shed light on the

nature, sources, and consequences of religious identification. Census data on religion were first captured in 1871 and have been collected in every decennial census since then. The most recent information available is from the 1991 Census. Respondents were asked to specify "the religion" of each person in the household, even if they were not a practising member of that faith. If they wished, respondents could answer "no religion." Information about children refers to never-married sons and daughters living at home with their parents at the time of the census, and therefore covers primarily younger children rather than adult children. (In 1991, 83% of children living with their parents were under the age of 20.)

- ¹ See Charles Y. Glock and Rodney Stark, **Religion and Society in Tension**, Chicago: Rand-McNally, 1965; Will Herberg, **Protestant**, **Catholic**, **Jew**, New York: Doubleday, 1960; and Gerhard Lenski, **The Religious Factor**, New York: Doubleday, 1961.
- 2 For a discussion of the possible significance of identification, see Bibby, $\textbf{Unknown Gods},\,1993.$
- ³ Reginald W. Bibby, The Bibby Report: Social Trends Canadian Style, Toronto: Stoddart, 1995.

in religious identification between parent and child. In these marriages, which accounted for 15% of unions in 1991, the key issue is not whether one partner converts to the other's faith, but how the children are raised. And here the pattern is clear: when couples of different religions marry or cohabit, the women tend to raise their children in their own tradition, including not having religion.

Catholics and Protestants tend to gain affiliates when marital relationships cross religious lines, while other religious groups and those professing "no religion" usually lose adherents. The reason for this is fairly straightforward: since there are relatively large numbers of Catholic and Protestant women, they bring large numbers of offspring to their religions when they marry men from different faiths or with no religion. The only exception to this "mirroring of mothers" pattern occurs when women of other faiths marry outside their religious groups. In these interfaith marriages, the women are more inclined to raise their children in their husband's tradition rather than their own.

The same basic pattern is found when one marriage partner reports that he or she has no religion. But since it is usually the men who report having "no religion" (74% in 1991), and since it is most often mothers who pass on their religion, the majority of children (56%) of these inter-faith marriages had a religious affiliation (almost all Catholic or Protestant). Here again, mothers' propensity

F	Religion of			Religion of Children					
Mother	Father	No. of Couples ¹	No. of Children	Catholic	Protestant	Eastern Orthodox	Jewish	Eastern non- Christian	No religion
							%		
Catholic	Protestant	259,130	324,590	70	11				(
	Eastern Orthodox	12,735	14,920	54	1	39			(
	Jewish	3,070	3,480	38	2		25		3
	Eastern non-Christian	7,600	10,370	57	1			21	2
	No religion	82,745	106,525	67	3				3
Protestant	Catholic	254,105	320,940	42	44				1
	Eastern Orthodox	10,300	11,540	2	55	29			1
	Jewish	3,555	3,720	2	38		26		3
	Eastern non-Christian	5,735	7,520	1	45			26	2
	No religion	126,935	145,900	1	58				4
Eastern	Catholic	8,625	9,380	62	4	28			
Orthodox	Protestant	6,595	6,560	4	47	36			1
	Catholic	2,055	2,310	28	1	1	45		2
	Protestant	2,520	2,740	1	23		52		2
Eastern	Catholic	3,195	3,865	58	4			12	2
non-	Protestant	3,220	3,500	2	42			26	2
Christian	No religion	4,415	6,035	3	5			22	7
No religion	Catholic	35,050	44,630	40	3				5
	Protestant	35,115	38,630	2	27				7
	Jewish	1,225	1,365	2	6		29		6
	Eastern non-Christian	2,365	3,165	5	4			22	7

¹ Includes husband-wife couples with and without children living at home.

⁻⁻ Estimate not reliable enough to publish.

Source: Statistics Canada, Census of Population, 1991.

to raise their children in their own faith appears to ensure the continued flow of adherents to the Catholic and Protestant religions.

Generally speaking, most smaller religious groups are losing some of their children to the mainstream Christian traditions, or to no tradition at all. For example, the 1991 General Social Survey shows that although one-third (32%) of Canadians of non-European ancestry born outside Canada identified with non-Christian faiths, only one-tenth (10%) of those born in Canada did so. The only notable exception to the general rule of assimilation is Judaism, which appears to hold its own in interfaith marriages.

Only one in thirty-three identify with major non-Christian religions Despite the stimulus of immigration from countries where other major world religions are predominant, faiths other than Christianity are not making significant inroads in Canada. Overall, the proportion of people claiming affiliation with Eastern non-Christian religions – such as Islam, Buddhism, Hinduism, and

Sikhism – comprised less than 3% of the population in 1991. Generally speaking, members of faiths that comprise less than 1% of the population often find that their children befriend, date, and marry people from other cultural and religious groups.

Most adherents of the Eastern non-Christian religions (67% in 1991) are immigrants, mainly from the Middle East and Asia. In contrast, a relatively small proportion of Catholics and Protestants (both 13% in 1991) are immigrants.

"New religions" have few affiliates Contrary to media reports and popular anecdotes, very few Canadians describe themselves as adherents of "new religions." In 1991, less than 30,000 Canadians (about one in 1,000) identified as members of parareligious groups like Scientology, New Age, Pagan, Theosophical, Metaphysical and other faiths. The persistence of identification with traditional religions suggests that Canada has an extremely tight religion "industry" dominated by Catholic and Protestant organizations. New "entries" find the going extremely tough.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS BACKGROUNDER

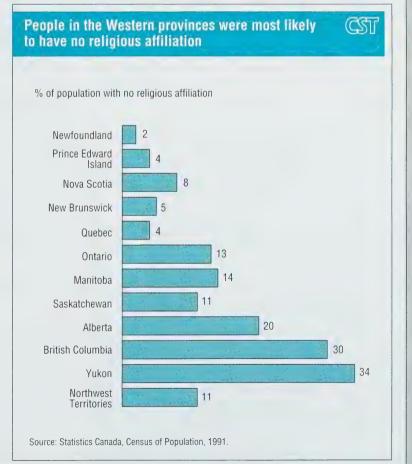


No religion? A call for caution

In the 1991 Census, 12% of Canadians reported that they had no religious affiliation, a three-fold increase from 4% in 1971. The Yukon and British Columbia had the highest proportion of people with no religious affiliation (more than 30%) and Quebec, Prince Edward Island, and Newfoundland the lowest (less than 5%).

The growing percentage of Canadians claiming to have "no religion" should be interpreted with caution for two reasons. The first is that the 1971 Census was the first in which respondents were able to answer "no religion" to the religious identification question; the second reason is demographic, since 81% of people with "no religion" in 1991 were under the age of 45. However, having no religious affiliation may be a temporary situation: about one-third of Canadians with "no religion" were not married, and almost half did not have children. Research suggests that many will turn to religious traditions when they want to secure "rites of passage" such as marriage and the baptism of children. When they do, many will adopt the religious identities of their parents, which for most people means remaining Catholic or Protestant.

¹ See Bibby, **Unknown Gods**, 1993.



The Religious Paradox The net result of these patterns of socialization and assimilation is that the vast majority of Canadians (82% in 1991) identify with the numerically-dominant Catholic and Protestant traditions. Secularization may have drastically reduced personal participation and the influence of the Christian churches in Canada. But socialization and assimilation appear to perpetuate the ties with those two dominant traditions. The vast majority of Canadians in the 1990s "think" they are Catholic or Protestant, and "think" they are raising Catholic or Protestant children. An increasing number of people are arriving from countries where other world faiths predominate. But other world religions are having difficulty growing in Canada, both because they are unable to attract converts and because their children tend to join Christian groups.

Ironically, many Canadians seem to want little to do with organized religion, precisely at a time when research (and popular culture) suggests they have unmet spiritual needs and are fascinated by supernatural phenomena. Such conditions would seem to be ideal for religions that have traditionally had something to say about spiritual and supernatural matters.

Reginald W. Bibby, PhD, is a professor of sociology at the University of Lethbridge.





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EDUCATORS' NOTEBOOK

Suggestions for using Canadian Social Trends in the classroom

Lesson plan for "Canadian Children in the 1990s"

- 1. List the four parenting styles traced in this study.
- 2. List the possible risk factors influencing children. Which seems the most crucial?
- **3.** Why do the children in lone-mother families seem to have more problems than children from two-parent families (emotional, behavioural, academic, social)?
- **4.** With this article in mind, and illustrating with statistics, create guidelines to help parents raise their children.

Using E-STAT to get to know your students

Professor John E. Lundy of the Education Faculty at Nipissing University reports that his student teachers have used E-STAT to look at the demographic, cultural and economic backgrounds of students and their families. Novice teachers often have set ideas about schools, students and families that are based on their own backgrounds. Using E-STAT, student teachers questioned these preconceived notions while learning to use an electronic data source designed for classroom use. To explore the social context of practicum settings, they generated tables, charts and thematic maps.

One student teacher from the Ottawa Valley investigated teaching in both the city of Pembroke (population about 14,000 in 1991) and the town of Deep River (population about 4,600 in 1991). The teacher started the study by comparing income and education levels and found some real differences in both. According to the 1991 Census, 19% of the population aged 15 and over in Pembroke had less than grade nine schooling compared to Deep River's 6%. Adults in Pembroke (48%) were twice as likely as those in Deep River (24%) not to have finished high school. Deep River also had almost four times (29%) the proportion of university degree holders than Pembroke (8%). In fact, Deep River's population was much better educated than Ontario adults overall: 13% of Ontario adults had a degree in 1991, while 12% had less than grade 9.

The differences in family income levels were also large. While 31% of families in Pembroke had an income above \$50,000 in 1990, the percentage in Deep River (59%) was almost double. Four in ten (39%) families in Pembroke had incomes under \$30,000, while Deep River had a relatively small proportion of families (15%) at this end of the income scale. In comparison, 50% of Ontario families made over \$50,000 and 24% made under \$30,000 in 1990.

As teachers started to plan their curriculum, an awareness of the particular economic needs of their students grew. While some families could easily afford computer equipment, others had to rely on the school and local library for these resources. Similarly, differences in parents' education levels may mean some students could expect more help with their school work than others. Because of the local information and ease of using E-STAT, these new teachers were able to study their communities more deeply, obtaining a "reality check" that could benefit their students.

Teachers in large cities need to look at smaller geographic areas to research their students' environment. As of 1996, E-STAT offers an optional module containing 1991 Census information for neighbourhood-size geographic areas (Census Tracts) within each of Canada's 39 largest urban areas.

For information on ordering a copy of E-STAT, contact your nearest Statistics Canada Regional Reference Centre at 1-800-263-1136.

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Share your ideas!

Do you have lessons using **CST** that you would like to share? Send your ideas or comments to Joel Yan, Dissemination Division, Statistics Canada, Ottawa, K1A 0T6. FAX (613) 951-4513 or Internet e-mail: yanjoel@statcan.ca.



EDUCATORS – You may photocopy *Educators' Notebook* and the article "Canadian Children in the 1990s" for use in your classroom.

ANNUAL LABOUR FORCE ESTIMATES, 1966-1996

	Population		Labour force (000	Os)	Participation	Unemployment	Employment/
	15+	Total	Employed	Unemployed	rate (%)	rate (%)	population ratio (%)
1966	13,083	7,493	7,242	251	57.3	3.4	55.4
1967	13,444	7,747	7,451	296	57.6	3.8	55.4
1968	13,805	7,951	7,593	358	57.6	4.5	55.0
1969	14,162	8,194	7,832	362	57.9	4.4	55.3
1970	14,528	8,395	7,919	476	57.8	5.7	54.5
1971	14,872	8,639	8,104	535	58.1	6.2	54.5
1972	15,186	8,897	8,344	553	58.6	6.2	54.9
1973	15,526	9,276	8,761	515	59.7	5.5	56.4
1974	15,924	9,639	9,125	514	60.5	5.3	57.3
1975	16,323	9,974	9,284	690	61.1	6.9	56.9
1976 ¹	17,124	10,530	9,776	754	61.5	7.2	57.1
1977	17,493	10,860	9,978	882	62.1	8.1	57.0
1978	17,839	11,265	10,320	945	63.1	8.4	57.9
1979	18,183	11,630	10,761	870	64.0	7.5	59.2
1980	18,550	11,983	11,082	900	64.6	7.5	59.7
1981	18,883	12,332	11,398	934	65.3	7.6	60.4
1982	19,177	12,398	11,035	1,363	64.7	11.0	57.5
1983	19,433	12,610	11,106	1,504	64.9	11.9	57.1
1984	19,681	12,853	11,402	1,450	65.3	11.3	57.9
1985	19,929	13,123	11,742	1,381	65.8	10.5	58.9
1986	20,182	13,378	12,095	1,283	66.3	9.6	59.9
1987	20,432	13,631	12,422	1,208	66.7	8.9	60.8
1988	20,690	13,900	12,819	1,082	67.2	7.8	62.0
1989	20,968	14,151	13,086	1,065	67.5	7.5	62.4
1990	21,277	14,329	13,165	1,164	67.3	8.1	61.9
1991	21,613	14,408	12,916	1,492	66.7	10.4	59.8
1992	21,986	14,482	12,842	1,640	65.9	11.3	58.4
1993	22,371	14,663	13,015	1,649	65.5	11.2	58.2
1994	22,171	14,832	13,292	1,541	65.3	10.4	58.5
1995	23,027	14,928	13,506	1,422	64.8	9.5	58.6
1996	23,352	15,145	13,676	1,469	64.9	9.7	58.6

¹ Estimates for 1976 to 1994 were revised to reflect results of the 1991 Census of Population, including historical adjustments for census undercoverage and inclusion of non-permanent residents. Esimates prior to 1976 are not strictly comparable to the revised series.

Labour Force Survey redesign

The Labour Force Survey (LFS) has been redesigned to provide more extensive coverage of labour market issues. Monthly data from the new questionnaire were available beginning January 1997. New content includes information about topics such as wages, union status, job turnover, and temporary and seasonal jobs. For information, refer to **The Labour Force**, Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 71-001-XPB, or visit our web site at http://www.statcan.ca.

	SOCIA	L INDI	CATOR	3				
	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996
POPULATION								
Canada, July 1 (000s)	27,379.3	27.790.6	28.120.1	28,542.2	28,947.0	29,255.6 R	29.615.3 R	29,963.6 PP
Annual growth (%)	1.8	1.5	1.2	1.5	1.4	1.1 R	1.2	1.2
Immigration ¹	178,152	202,979	219,250	241,810	265,405	234,457 F	215,470 R	208,791 PP
Emigration ¹	40,395	39,760	43,692	45,633	43,993	44,807	45,949	47,230 PP
FAMILY								
Birth rate (per 1,000)	15.0	15.3	14.3	14.0	13.4	13.2	*	*
Marriage rate (per 1,000)	7.0	6.8	6.1	5.8	5.5	5.5	*	*
Divorce rate (per 1,000)	3.0	2.8	2.7	2.8	2.7	2.7	*	28
Families experiencing unemployment (000s)	808	879	1,096	1,184	1,198	1,130	1,044	*
LABOUR FORCE								
Total employment (000s)	13,086	13,165	12,916	12,842	13,015	13,292	13,506	13,676
- goods sector (000s)	3,928	3,809	3,582	3,457	3,448	3,545	3,653	3,681
- service sector (000s)	9,158	9,356	9,334	9,385	9,567	9,746	9,852	9,995
Total unemployment (000s)	1,065	1,164	1,492	1,640	1,649	1,541	1,422	1,469
Unemployment rate (%)	7.5	8.1	10.4	11.3	11.2	10.4	9.5	9.7
Part-time employment (%)	15.0	15.3	16.3	16.7	17.2	17.0	16.6	18.9
Women's participation rate (%)	58.3	58.7	58.5	58.0	57.9	57.6	57.4	57.6
Unionization rate – % of paid workers	34.1	34.7	35.1	34.9	34.3	*	*	*
INCOME	40.005	45.040	40.000	47.400	40.747	10.001	40.070	
Median family income	43,995 11.1	45,618 12.3	46,389 13.0	47,199 13.5	46,717 14.6	48,091 13.5	48,079 14.2	*
% of families with low income (1992 Base) Women's full-time earnings as a % of men's	66.0	67.7	69.6	71.9	72.2	69.8	73.1	*
EDUCATION					7 64 64		70.1	
Elementary and secondary enrolment (000s)	5,075.3	5,141.0	5,218.2	5,284.2	5,347.4 P	5,402.4 P	5,465.5 E	5511.0 E
Full-time postsecondary enrolment (000s)	831.8	856.6	903.1	931.0	951.1 P	964.7 E	961.2 E	961.2 E
Doctoral degrees awarded	2,573	2,673	2,947	3,136	3,356	3,552	3,621 E	3,532 E
Government expenditure on education – as a % of GDP	5.5	5.8	6.3	6.4	6.2	*	*	*
HEALTH								
% of deaths due to cardiovascular disease - men	39.1	37.3	37.1	37.1	37.0	36.3	*	*
- women	42.6	41.2	41.0	40.7	40.2	39.7 R	*	*
% of deaths due to cancer – men	27.2	27.8	28.1	28.4 R	27.9	28.3	*	*
- women	26.4	26.8	27.0	27.3	26.9	27.0	*	*
Government expenditure on health – as a % of GDP	5.9	6.2	6.7	6.8	6.7	*	aje	*
JUSTICE								
Crime rates (per 100,000) – violent	908	970	1,056	1,077 R	1,072	1,038 R	995	*
- property	5,271	5,593	6,141	5,868 R	5,524 R	5,212 R	5,237	*
- homicide	2.4	2.4	2.7	2.6	2.2	2.0	2.0	*
GOVERNMENT	,							
Expenditures on social programmes ² (1995 \$000,000)	175,372.4 R	183,505.7 R	190,745.5 R	207,245.8 R	214,317.3 R	215,567.4	208,494.6	*
- as a % of total expenditures	56.1 R	56.0 R	56.8 R	58.5 R	60.0 R	60.1	58.3	*
- as a % of GDP	23.0 R	24.5 R	26.7 R	28.8 R	29.4 R	28.2	26.9	*
UI beneficiaries (000s)	3,025.2	3,261.0	3,663.0	3,658.0	3,415.5	3,086.2	2,910.0	*
OAS and OAS/GIS beneficiaries ^m (000s)	2,919.4	3,005.8	3,098.5	3,180.5	3,264.1	3,340.8	3,420.0	3,500.2
Canada Assistance Plan beneficiaries ^m (000s)	1,856.1	1,930.1	2,282.2	2,723.0	2,975.0	3,100.2	3,070.9	*
ECONOMIC INDICATORS								
GDP (1986 \$) - annual % change	+2.4	-0.2	-1.8	+0.8	+2.2	+4.1	+2.3	*
Annual inflation rate (%)	5.0	4.8	5.6	1.5	1.8	0.2	2.1	1.6
Urban housing starts	183,323	150,620	130,094	140,126	129,988	127,346	89,526	101,804
Not available * Not yet available P Prelimina PD Final postcensal estimates PP Preliminary postce 1 For year ending June 30:		Estimate PR Upd	^m Figures as ated postcensal		^{IR} Revised	l intercensal es data	timates ^F Final data	

²Includes Protection of Persons and Property; Health; Social Services; Education; Recreation and Culture.

¹For year ending June 30:

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS KEEPINGTRACK

Property crime virtually unchanged



Canadians reported 1.6 million incidents of property crime in 1995, almost unchanged from the previous year. On a per capita basis, there were 5,237 occur-

rences of property crime for every 100,000 people. One-quarter of all property crimes reported were incidents of breaking and entering, with audio-visual equipment such as TVs, VCRs and stereos the most common targets. Approximately ten percent of property crimes were motor vehicle thefts, while other theft (such as personal property theft and shoplifting) accounted for over half of property crimes.

Juristat, Vol. 16, No. 10, Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 85-002-XPE.

Investment income bouncing back



In 1995, investment income of individuals increased 18% from the previous year - the first increase in five years. Canadians reported \$28.3 billion in interest and dividend income on their 1995 personal income tax returns. One-half of those with investment income reported an amount over \$600. This was unchanged from the previous year. While taxfilers aged 55 and over accounted for 42% of savers and

1995 Savers and Investors Databank.

Statistics Canada, Small Area and Administrative Data Division.

investors, they earned 66% of investment income.

Many Atlantic students pursue university studies outside their home province



In 1993/94, Prince Edward Island (35%), Newfoundland (26%), and New Brunswick (20%) had the highest percentages of bachelor's students studying in another

province. The likelihood of attending an out-of-province university increased with degree level. Nearly all graduate students from Prince Edward Island studied elsewhere. At the master's level, 45% of Newfoundland students and 44% of New Brunswick students studied in another province. At the doctoral level, the proportions were 70% for Newfoundland and 60% for New Brunswick.

Education Quarterly Review, Fall 1996, Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 81-003-XPB.

One in five senior families has two pensions



Families with two paycheques are becoming twopensioner families. In 1994, couples where both partners received private pensions made up 20% of

senior families, up from only 6% in 1981. These families reported an average 1994 total income of \$56,200, compared with \$39,700 for single-pensioner families.

Perspectives on labour and income, Autumn 1996, Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 75-001-XPE.

Pregnancy outcomes different from two decades ago



In 1993, there were 75.4 pregnancies for every 1,000 women aged 15 to 44, considerably fewer than the rate of 84.9 per 1,000 in 1974. A growing proportion of

pregnancies ended in abortions, 20% in 1993, compared with 12% in 1974. Live births fell to 75% from 79% of pregnancies, while miscarriages/stillbirths dropped to 4% from 9%.

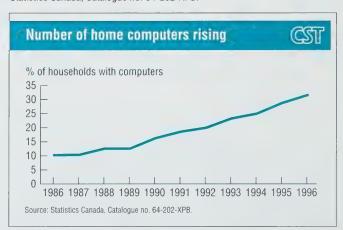
Reproductive Health: Pregnancies and Rates, Canada, 1974-1993, Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 82-568-XPB.

One in three households own computers



Almost 32% of Canadian households (3.6 million), had a home computer in 1996, triple the proportion of a decade ago. Households in Alberta and British Columbia were most likely to own a computer (38%), while those

Household Facilities and Equipment, 1996, Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 64-202-XPB.



in Newfoundland and New Brunswick were least likely (22%).



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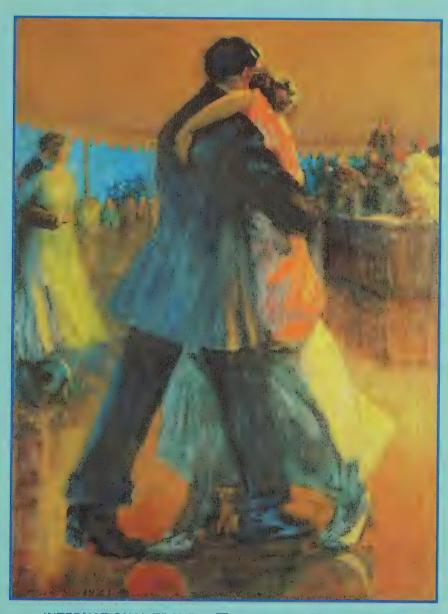
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ON OUR COVER:

Summer Evening (1921) oil on canvas, 92.1 x 67.0 cm. Collection: National Gallery of Canada, Ottawa.

About the artist:

William John Wood, a painter and etcher, was born in Ottawa in 1877 and grew up in Port Colborne, Ontario. From 1904 to 1905 he studied at the Central Ontario School of Art in Toronto, under G.A. Reid and William

Cruikshank, and also studied for a short time in Boston. William Wood lived in northern Ontario and Orillia before moving to Midland, Ontario in 1913, where he worked in the woodworking shops of the shipyards. In 1933 he became a founding member of the Canadian Group of Painters. Mr. Wood died in Midland in 1954.

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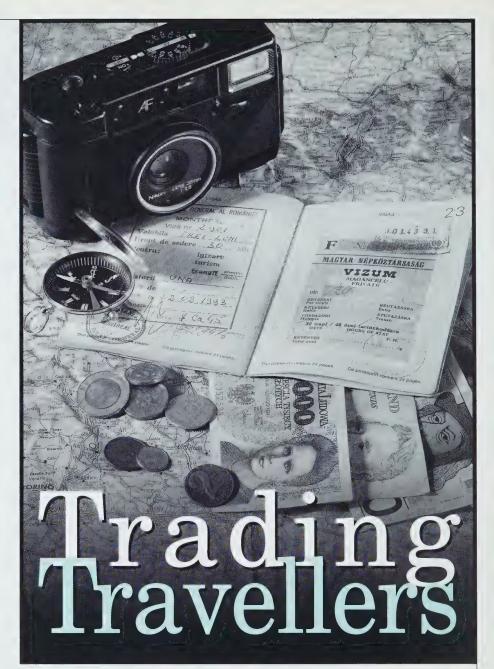
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Canadians travel

outside Canada for many different reasons. They want to escape the daily routine and pressures of life, recharge batteries and put day-to-day living back in perspective. Canadians want to relax, experience different cultures, expand their horizons, spend time with distant friends. explore and find adventure. For some people, business, employment, education or attending a convention is the motivation for travelling beyond our borders.

BY WARREN CLARK



International Travel Trends

Although Canadians take most trips within Canada, travel expenditures of Canadians are split almost equally between domestic and international travel. The United States remains the primary international destination of Canadians while Americans are the most abundant international travellers to Canada. However, economic conditions in Canada have led to dramatic changes in travel patterns to the United States over the last decade. Increased Canadian travel to the United States in the early 1990s resulted in rapid growth in travel expenditures outside Canada that was not counterbalanced by visitors to Canada. Meanwhile, travel to and from overseas countries has grown steadily over the last decade except when the Gulf War of the early 1990s briefly interrupted growth.

In 1994, Canadians took 152 million trips of 80 kilometres or more in Canada, 54 million trips to the United States and 3.4 million trips to other countries. While on these trips, they spent \$33 billion, representing the equivalent of 4.5% of Gross Domestic Product or \$1,137 for every man, woman and child in Canada.

Older Canadians are more likely to travel than younger Canadians

Adults aged 55 to 64 were the most likely to travel outside Canada. This is not surprising since on average, older Canadians have higher household discretionary income per capita, fewer financial commitments and more leisure time. 1 A favourite destination for older Canadians is the southern United States where they stay longer and spend more per visit than younger Canadians. Those aged 65 and over travel less often than 55- to 64-yearolds, possibly because of health concerns and mobility problems. As well 55- to 64-year-olds were three times more likely to travel internationally than those aged 20 to 24.

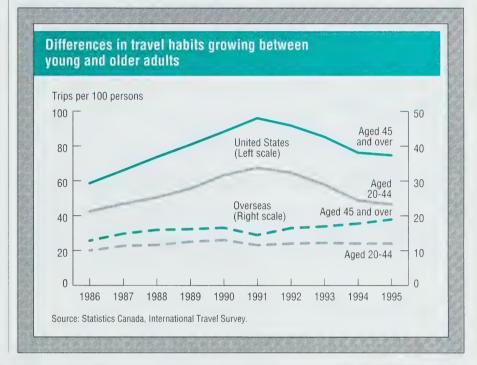
Over the last decade, economic conditions affected travel of both young and old Canadians alike. However, the gap in the number of trips per 100 people has widened between younger adults (aged

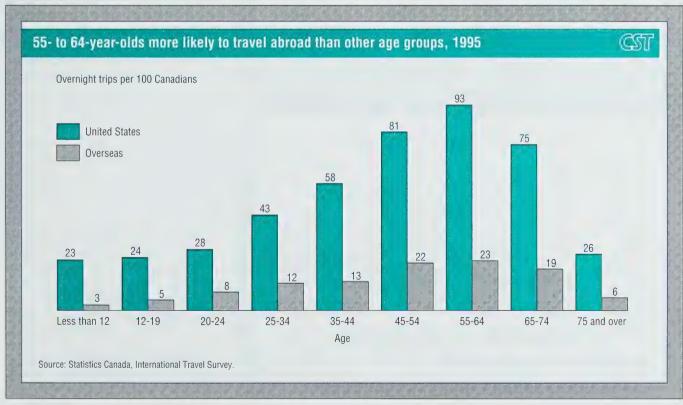
20 to 44) and older adults (aged 45 and over). The gap widened for both overseas travel and travel to the United States. Different earnings growth for younger and older adults may partially explain the widening gap. For example, real earnings of young men have fallen since the late 1970s while those of older men have increased.² Consequently, international

travel has become less attractive to young adults and more affordable for older adults over the last decade.

¹ Donna J. Owens, "Tracking Down Discretionary Income," *Perspectives on Labour and Income*, Spring 1991, Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 75-001-XPE.

² Garnett Picot and John Myles, "Children in Lowincome Families," *Canadian Social Trends*, Autumn 1996.





The United States: our favourite destination In 1994, Canadians were the largest group of international travellers to the United States, making 33% of all trips of one or more nights to that country.³ Although the number of overnight trips Canadians made to the United States remained relatively constant between the early 1970s and 1986, the

number of trips has fluctuated with the economic conditions in Canada since then. In 1986, the Canadian dollar hit a new low compared with the U.S. dollar — US\$0.72. The value of the Canadian dollar then climbed to US\$0.87 in 1991 which made travel to the United States increasingly affordable for Canadians. In 1991, Canadian travel to the United States

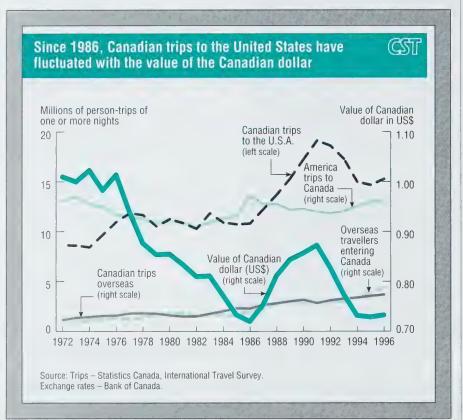
peaked at 19.1 million trips of one or more nights.

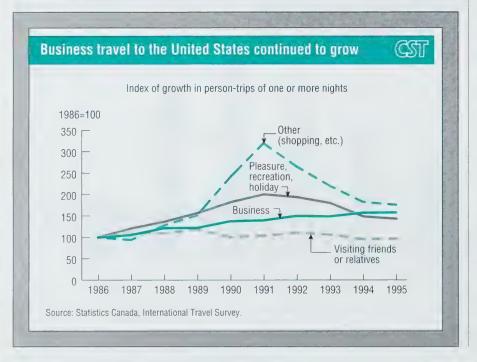
By 1995, however, Canadian travel to the United States plummeted to 14.7 million trips of one or more nights.⁴ Many events influenced this decline. The Canadian dollar dropped back to US\$0.73 by 1995. Unemployment rates remained high and real family income stagnated. During the early 1990s, several provincial governments limited the amounts paid for health care services provided to Canadians while outside Canada, thus dramatically increasing the cost of supplementary health insurance. Furthermore, the domestic tourism industry initiated advertising campaigns to promote Canadian tourism products and experiences, including adventure travel, parks, festivals, events and cultural experiences, that Canadians could substitute for similar American ones.

Cross-border shopping down Same-day car trips to the United States often are an indicator of cross-border shopping. Day trips decreased to 36 million in 1996 from a peak of 59 million in 1991, reflecting the decline in the relative value of the Canadian dollar. The Free Trade Agreement and North American Free Trade Agreement introduced progressively lower import duties on American goods, yet fewer Canadians made same-day visits to the United States in 1996 than in the early 1990s.

Florida, Canada's winter home away from home Florida is the main sun destination for eastern Canadians while California, Nevada and Hawaii are most popular among western Canadians. During 1995, Canadian visits to Florida represented 35% of all person-nights that Canadians spent in the United States and 25% of all Canadian expenditures on travel in the United States.

Widely publicized violent crimes against foreign tourists in recent years affected travel to Canada's most popular winter getaway. Public perception of crime in Florida appears to have contributed to a 30% drop in visits to Florida between 1992 and 1995. Some Canadians may have substituted visits to other southern vacation spots, particularly Cuba and Mexico, helped by the devaluation of the Mexican peso and the low Canadian





dollar relative to the U.S. dollar. Others may have simply stayed at home.

Canadians stay longer and spend more per visit in the southern states than any other region of the United States. In 1995, Canadians made 4.4 million visits of one or more nights to the southern states, down from 5.5 million in 1992. On average, in 1995, Canadian overnight visitors to southern states stayed 13.4 nights and spent \$806 per visit.

Border state travel declines At the peak of Canadian travel to the United States in 1991. Canadians made 18.7 million overnight visits to border states.⁵ During the visits, they spent \$3.3 billion, almost as much as was spent in the southern states. Between 1991 and 1995. the number of overnight visits to border states declined by 34%. Compared with southern state travellers, though, border state travellers stayed for much shorter periods (2.7 nights on average) and spent much less per visit. Due to proximity, travellers to the border states were more likely than southern state travellers to make a quick trip to visit friends and relatives or go shopping.

Business travel bucks the downward trend of the 1990s Most Canadians travel to the United States on holiday or pleasure trips. While holidays to the United States doubled between 1986 and 1991, they decreased steadily from 1991 to 1995. Those Canadians who did travel to the United States stayed a little bit longer: an average of 9 nights in 1995, up from 8.7 nights in 1991.

In contrast, the number of Canadians travelling on business to the United States has grown slowly but steadily since 1986. During this period, the North American Free Trade Agreement expanded ties between Canadian and American businesses. The Open Skies agreement and the gradual expansion of Canada-U.S. air routes made business travel to the United States easier and less expensive.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS BACKGROUNDER



Open Skies agreement

The Open Skies bilateral agreement between Canada and the United States, signed in February 1995, deregulated airline routes between the two countries. Under the agreement, Canadian and American airlines have unlimited rights to fly between any two points on either side of the border, excluding flights to five busy airports: Toronto's Pearson, Montreal's Dorval, Vancouver's International, New York's La Guardia and Chicago's O'Hare. The arrangement means better flight connections and more competitive pricing for both passengers and cargo. Complementing the accord are plans to expand preclearing facilities to allow Canadians to clear American customs before leaving Canada. The impact of the agreement is seen in air travel's increasing share of Canadian travel to the United States. In 1995, 26% of overnight trips by Canadians to the United States were by plane, up from 19% in 1991.

Favourite destinations of Canadians, 1995



one	Visits of or more nights	Person- nights	Average nights per visit	Money spent on travel excluding fares ¹
	000s	000s		\$ millions
United States ²	14,663	105,795	7.2	8,299
Border states	12,287	33,733	2.7	2,422
Mid-range states	3,895	12,694	3.3	1,227
Southern states	4,420	59,072	13.4	3,579
Total overseas ²	3,543	64,975	18.3	4,769
Europe	2,527	32,033	12.7	2,440
France	418	5,335	12.7	468
Germany	223	2,564	11.5	182
Italy	151	1,860	12.3	153
Netherlands	165	1,551	9.4	98
Switzerland	126	743	5.9	82
United Kingdom	714	10,283	14.4	770
Asia	537	10,066	18.7	780
Hong Kong	115	2,464	21.4	138
Japan	57	984	17.4	125
Caribbean	732	6,846	9.4	638
Cuba	184	1,734	9.4	119
Dominican Republic	126	1,225	9.7	86
Mexico	406	4,291	10.6	351
Australia	65	2,348	36.0	146

¹ Includes money spent on same-day trips and trips of one or more nights.

³ World Tourism Organization, *Yearbook of Tourism Statistics*, Volume 2, 48th edition, 1996.

 $^{^4}$ In 1996, overnight trips to the United States were up 4% from 1995.

⁵ Border states: Maine, New Hampshire, Vermont, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Connecticut, New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Ohio, Michigan, Wisconsin, Minnesota, North Dakota, Montana, Idaho, Washington, Oregon.

² Person-trips of one or more nights

Source: Statistics Canada, International Travel Survey.

Canadian travellers on business to the United States spent more per trip than did other U.S.-bound Canadian travellers, spending \$680 on trips averaging four nights.

Overnight travel to the United States to visit friends and relatives has remained stable since 1986. These trips, averaging \$250 in 1995, were less expensive than others for two reasons: inexpensive transportation (by car) and accommodation (with friends or relatives).

Other reasons for overnight travel, particularly shopping in the United States, showed the greatest fluctuations in overnight trips between 1986 and 1995. In 1991, when the Canadian dollar

reached its peak, Canadians made 1.3 million overnight trips, primarily to shop; nearly 80% of all overnight trips included shopping. By 1995, overnight shopping trips to the United States had dropped to 0.3 million.

Little change in American travel to Canada Although the 16% devaluation of the Canadian dollar since 1991 has made travel to Canada increasingly attractive, American travel to Canada has not varied much over the last decade. In 1995, travel from the United States reached a nine-year high of 13 million overnight trips, the highest volume since 1986 when Vancouver was host to Expo 86. This

volume was only 10% above that of 1992, the low point of the last decade.

Americans visiting Canada spent far less and stayed shorter periods than Canadian visitors to the U.S. In 1995, Americans made five overnight trips to Canada per 100 people, while Canadians made 50 overnight trips to the United States. While the United States attracts Canadian travellers year-round, Americans view Canada as primarily a spring and summer destination.

Canadian overseas travel continued to

grow Canadian trips to overseas countries increased by 55% between 1986 and 1995. In 1995, Canadians made 3.5 million trips overseas and spent \$4.8 billion, a little over half of what Canadians spent on travel to the United States.

In 1995, the United Kingdom and France remained the most popular overseas destinations for Canadians. Over the last decade, visits to these European countries increased by one-third. In contrast, Canadian travel to Asia, Cuba and Mexico increased by more than 75%. While travel to the United Kingdom and France was primarily during trips for holidays or to visit friends or relatives, travel to Japan and Hong Kong was more business-oriented.

Greater cultural ties with Asian countries may have contributed to increased Canadian travel to Asia. In recent years, more than half of immigrants and about half of international students entering Canada came from Asia. The Canadian and Japanese governments are now working together to increase the number of visitors travelling between the two countries.

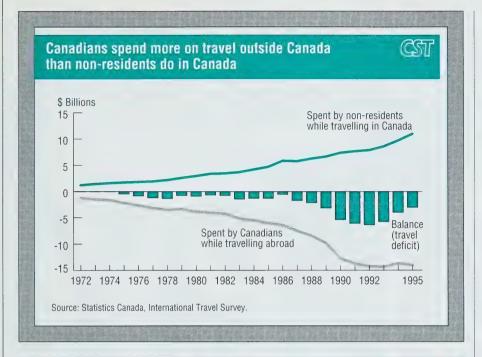
In 1995, overseas travellers made 3.9 million overnight trips to Canada — an all-time high.⁶ They spent \$4.1 billion while in Canada on trips averaging 11 nights and costing just over \$1,000. In contrast, Canadian trips overseas averaged 18 days and cost about \$1,350.

\$3 billion travel deficit in 1995 When Canadians spend more money travelling outside the country than do travellers visiting Canada, a travel deficit between Canada and other countries results. Before 1986, the Canadian travel deficit increased slowly. With increased Canadian travel to the United States, the travel deficit ballooned to about \$6.4 billion in

International visitors to Canada, 1995						
	Visits of one or more nights	Person- nights	Average nights per visit	Money spent in Canada by travellers from other countries excluding fares ¹		
	000s	000s		\$ millions		
United States ²	13,005	49,078	3.8	5,801		
Border states	9,114	30,648	3.4	3,673		
Mid-range states	2,009	8,756	4.4	1,011		
Southern states	1,883	9,671	5.1	1,116		
Total overseas ²	3,927	42,904	10.9	4,057		
Europe	2,119	25,930	12.2	2,148		
France	430	5,230	12.2	462		
Germany	421	5,089	12.1	500		
Italy	99	1,265	12.8	82		
Netherlands	99	1,292	13.0	91		
Switzerland	101	1,246	12.3	136		
United Kingdom	640	7,327	11.4	567		
Asia	1,288	10,855	8.4	1,377		
Hong Kong	173	1,794	10.4	171		
Japan	589	3,487	5.9	668		
South Korea	112	738	6.6	127		
Taiwan	98	1,643	16.8	131		
South America	108	1,167	10.8	124		
Australia	142	1,381	9.8	138		

² Person-trips of one or more nights

Source: Statistics Canada, International Travel Survey



CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS BACKGROUNDER



International Travel Survey

All ports of entry across Canada participate in determining the number of travellers crossing the border into Canada, by category and type of transportation. A census of international travellers entering Canada is taken at all but seven ports of entry (where samples are used to estimate automobile and cycle traffic).

Statistics Canada obtains information about expenditures and characteristics of international travellers from questionnaires handed out by Canada Customs officials at all ports of entry to Canada. Five questionnaires are used to survey different categories of international travellers: travellers from the United States visiting Canada, residents of countries other than the United States visiting Canada, Canadian residents returning from trips abroad, Canadian residents leaving and returning to Canada by auto on the same day, and United States residents visiting Canada by auto on the same day. Questionnaire return rates for these five categories of international travellers varied between 4% and 14% in 1995.

Definitions:

Person-trip: Each time a Canadian resident leaves Canada, a person-trip begins. The person-trip ends when the traveller returns to Canada.

Person-night: Each night a Canadian resident traveller spends outside Canada during a person-trip counts as a person-night.

Visit: Each border crossing into a country represents a visit to that country. A Canadian resident may visit several countries before returning to Canada. Each crossing into a U.S. state is counted as a visit to that state. For example, Canadians driving to Florida are recorded as visiting each state they enter. Thus, during one person-trip, several visits to different countries or states could be recorded.

1992. Most of that deficit was with the United States (\$5.9 billion). The decline in Canadian travel to the United States between 1991 and 1995 reduced the travel deficit to \$3.1 billion in 1995.

Getting to know Canada better A weak Canadian dollar has made Canada an increasingly attractive destination to foreign travellers: it has also made travel outside the country less affordable for Canadians. Although trips of non-U.S. residents to Canada increased by onethird between 1992 and 1995. American travel to Canada has remained flat over the last decade. For many American travellers, Canada remains a short-stay destination. Meanwhile, the warmth of the southern states and other sun spots still attracts Canadians during the winter months for long stays. The challenge to the Canadian tourism industry is to make travel in Canada more attractive to Canadians and non-residents alike and to spread travel into the off-peak season.

⁶ In 1996, overnight trips to Canada increased further to 4.4 million.

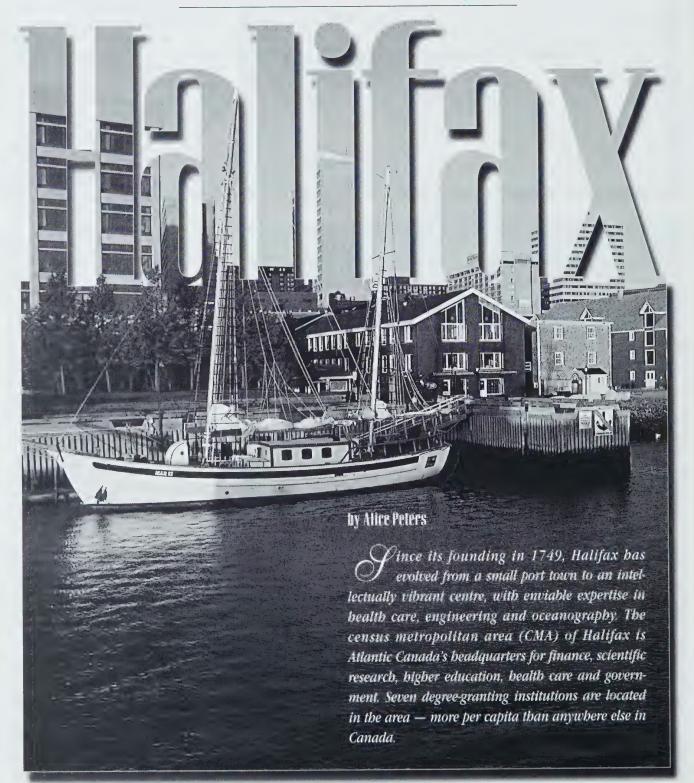
⁷ Travel receipts and payments include spending on travel and incidentals to travel such as spending on lodging, food, entertainment, local transportation, gifts, medical care, student expenses and other purchases of personal goods and services.

• For more information, see *Touriscope*— *International Travel*, Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 66-201-XPB.

Warren Clark is an analyst with Canadian Social Trends.



The City of



A young population Between 1991 and 1995, the population of the Halifax CMA is estimated to have grown from 327,000 to 342,800, a percentage increase similar to that for the country (5%). In contrast, the population of the CMA of St. John's is estimated to have increased 1% and the CMA of Saint John 0.2%.

Halifax is the only Canadian city east of Toronto to have an "echo" boom generation — children of baby boomers. Consequently, it has a larger proportion of young people than most other Canadian cities. In 1994, the average ages of the Canadian population and the population of Nova Scotia were 35 and 36 years, respectively, while in Halifax the average age was 34. There were proportionally more people in their twenties in the Halifax CMA (16%), compared with Nova Scotia and Canada (14% in both). Halifax also had proportionally fewer older people. In 1994, 12% of both the Canadian population and the population of Nova Scotia were aged 65 and over, compared with less than 10% in Halifax.

A well educated population Given the growing automation and computerization of the workplace, a good education is increasingly important, both for individuals to be successful in the labour market, and for employers to cope with greater competition. The CMA of Halifax is fortunate in having a well-educated workforce. According to the 1991 Census, Halifax had a substantially larger proportion of its population aged 15 years and over with a university degree (16.8%) than the country as a whole

¹ See Foot, David K. with Daniel Stoffman, *Boom, Bust & Echo, How to Profit from the Coming Demographic Shift*, Toronto: Macfarlane Walter & Ross, 1996.

(11.4%) and other parts of the Atlantic region — the province of Nova Scotia (10.4%), the CMA of Saint John (8.9%) and the CMA of St. John's (11.9%). Halifax has the advantage of seven degree-granting institutions, and a larger-than-average share of its workforce is employed in the field of post-secondary education.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS BACKGROUNDER



In April 1996, the four municipalities in the Halifax area (the cities of Halifax and Dartmouth, the town of Bedford, and Halifax County) were amalgamated into a single, regional municipality. The restructuring is intended to achieve economies of scale by having a single local government manage the region.

The new municipality is an urban-rural mix. It has been estimated that 70% of the population lives on 5% of the land, while more than 50% of the land is populated by only 3% of the people. In between is the urban fringe, with one quarter of both the population and the land, and an area that has been called "transition to fringe," which has 2% of the population and 13% of the land.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS BACKGROUNDER



A town is born

The first inhabitants of the area were the Mi'kmaq, who called the harbour Che-booktook ("at the biggest harbour"), which the English changed to Chebucto. In 1749, the British settled at Chebucto and built a fortress on the harbour to act as a base against French power in North America. Plans for the new town were drawn up by the Board of Trade and Plantations. The new settlement was named for the Board's president, Lord Halifax.

Of the original English settlers, more than 1,000 (one out of every three) died of typhus during the first winter of 1749-50. Over the next few years, an influx of American, German, and Dutch settlers arrived. For the next 150 years, a steady stream of English, Irish, and Scottish immigrants further settled the area. Throughout the 19th century, Halifax continued to function as a base for British power.



CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS BACKGROUNDER



The day the town died

On the morning of December 6, 1917, horror and chaos descended on Halifax. Two ships collided in Halifax harbour, causing one to catch fire and explode. The blast tore through the town, leveling homes, schools, churches, and shops and igniting fires throughout the area. Survivors were left in disarray with no electricity or gas. The railway line was destroyed. Telephone and telegraph lines were down, cutting off communication with the outside world.



The explosion and resulting fires killed almost 2,000 people and injured 9,000 others. Some 1,600 homes and other buildings were demolished and a further 12,000 damaged, leaving thousands of people homeless. Survivors were left to deal with the devastation, to bury their dead and to rebuild their lives and their town.

Top 10 industries in Halifax by percent employed and compared to the total of all CMAs **Protective Services** Hospitals Food Services Elementary and Secondary Education Food Stores Other Business Services Defence Services Halifax Other Institutional Health Total of all CMAs University Education Telecommunication Carriers Industry 0 2 Source: Statistics Canada, 1995 Labour Force Survey.

An economy based on old and new industries Although initially built on a wealth of natural resources, the economy of Halifax is now quite diversified. The traditional industries of fishing, forestry and shipbuilding have been joined by such leading-edge industries as information technology and aerospace manufacturing, as well as the ground-breaking fields of scientific, medical and ocean research. Compared with the other 24 census metropolitan areas in Canada. Halifax has a much larger percentage of its workers employed in protective services² (9.1%), hospitals (6.0%), universities (2.9%) and defence services (2.6%). The headquarters of the largest defence contractor in the country is in Halifax. Also in the area is the Bedford Institute of Oceanography, the third largest oceanographic institute in North America. The Nova Scotia Environmental Health Centre in Halifax is the only environmental health clinic in Canada.

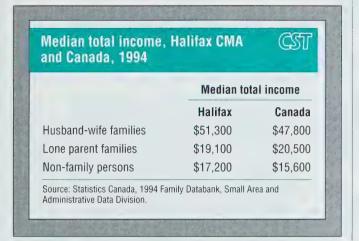
Perhaps because of its diverse economy, and its relatively large numbers of federal, provincial, and municipal employees, Halifax has an unemployment rate far lower than any other urban area east of Ontario. In December 1996, the Halifax CMA had an unemployment rate of 8.7%, lower than the Canadian rate of 9.9% and much lower than the rate of 12.6% in the CMA of Montréal, 14.9% in the CMA of St. John's and 15.0% in the CMA of Saint John.

Median earnings higher than national average With a well-educated workforce and diverse economy, it is not surprising that the majority of families in the CMA of Halifax have two earners. Halifax had proportionally more dual-earner families in 1994 (58% of all its husband-wife families) than the country as a whole (54%). In addition, the median employment income of dual-earner families in Halifax was higher (\$54,100) than the national average (\$53,300).

The proportion of lone-parent families in Halifax (16%), is marginally higher than the national average (15%). The median total income of lone-parent families in

² Protective services include courts of law, correctional services, police services, firefighting services, regulatory services, and other protective services engaged in dealing with major emergencies and catastrophes.

Halifax in 1994 was lower (\$19,100), than that for lone-parent families for Canada as a whole (\$20,500).



CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS BACKGROUNDER



A homogeneous community

Given the immigration history of the Halifax CMA, it is not surprising that 71% of Halifax residents who reported a single ethnic origin in the 1991 Census reported being of British origin. French (9%) and Black (4%) were distant second and third responses. Halifax is unique in the Atlantic region in that it has a significant Black population. Across Canada, a much smaller percentage of those reporting a single ethnicity were of Black origin (1.2%).

Almost all residents of the Halifax CMA (99%) gave a single response to the question on mother tongue on the 1991 Census. Of those, 93% indicated that English was their first language. The British background of the residents was also reflected in the religious affiliation of Halifax residents — 50% of the population reported being affiliated with Protestant religions and 38% with the Roman Catholic religion.

In recent years, the Halifax CMA has had a much smaller proportion of immigrants than many other areas of the country. According to the 1991 Census, the immigrant population of the CMA was less than 7%, compared to the Canadian average of 16%. There is an even greater contrast when compared with other CMAs, such as Toronto (38%), Vancouver (30%) and Edmonton (18%). Of the small population of immigrants in Halifax in 1991, the largest proportion were from the United Kingdom (30%), other European countries (24%) and the United States (17%).

Halifax loses residents to the west but attracts Atlantic Canadians Despite low unemployment in the area, Halifax residents continue to move westward in search of opportunity. During the three-year period from 1992 to 1995, Halifax experienced a net loss of 3,700 people to central and western Canada — meaning more people moved from Halifax to central and western Canada than moved in the opposite direction. Of those 3,700, the greatest number moved to the CMA of Vancouver (1,240), followed by Victoria (630), Toronto (560), British Columbia — excluding Vancouver and Victoria (470), Calgary (400), and Ottawa-Hull (320).

The outflow westward was partially offset by the continuing trend of Atlantic Canadians to move to Halifax. In the same three-year period, Halifax had a net gain of 1,820 people from Newfoundland and New Brunswick, with most of the net gain (1,500) consisting of people moving to Halifax from Newfoundland.

Halifax in the 21st century The relatively young age and high education level of the Halifax population places it in an enviable position as the new millennium nears. The "echo" boomers will begin to come of age and enter the labour and consumer markets just after the turn of the century. Halifax will have both maturing boomers saving for retirement, and "echo" boomers buying homes and consumer durables. With its relatively young population, Halifax may have fewer of the problems associated with an aging population, such as increased pressure on care institutions and decreased availability of family support.

Alice Peters is an analyst with Canadian Social Trends.





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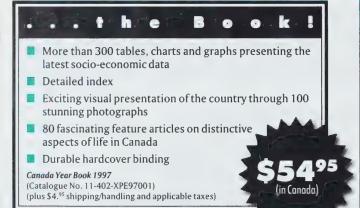
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The Consumer Price Index

inflation

by Alice Peters



aware of how important the Consumer Price Index is to their lives. Changes in the Consumer Price Index (CPI) can affect labour-management contracts, social program payments, rental agreements, and child support payments. The CPI is frequently used to estimate the extent to which the purchasing power of money changes in Canada, and is a widely used measure of inflation (or deflation).

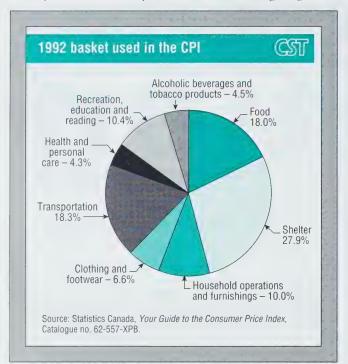
So what is this number that has so much influence? The Consumer Price Index measures the percentage change over time in the average cost of a large basket of goods and services purchased by Canadian consumers. Since the quantity and quality of the goods and services in the basket remain the same, changes in the cost of the basket over time are due solely to changes in prices.

How does the Consumer Price Index work? The goods and services included in the CPI basket are those considered consumer items. They must be associated with a retail price that a consumer would pay to purchase a specific quantity and quality of a good or service. No attempt is made to differentiate between luxuries and necessities, and nothing is omitted on the basis of moral or social judgement. Some items are excluded from the CPI because associating quantities with prices is difficult or impossible; for example, we can associate food with specific quantities, but quantifying life insurance is difficult. Therefore, the CPI excludes income taxes, charitable donations, contributions made to pension plans, and consumer savings and investments.

Information on the spending habits of Canadian households is obtained periodically from family expenditure surveys. Households selected from a random sample are asked to provide detailed information about food expenditures over a two-week period and about purchases of goods and services over the previous calendar year.

A "weight" is established for each item to ensure that price changes for things that form a small part of a household's budget do not have a disproportionate impact on the index. A 5% rise in the price of milk, for example, would have a much bigger impact on the average budget of consumers than a 5% increase in the price of tea, because people generally spend more on milk than they do on tea.

The contents of the CPI basket are reviewed and updated periodically to ensure that they remain relevant. Existing weights are



replaced with those obtained from more recent family expenditure surveys. The current weights are based on 1992 household expenditures, and were introduced into the CPI in January 1995. Price indexes are calculated every month for each component. Detailed CPIs are published for Canada, the 10 provinces, Whitehorse in the Yukon, and Yellowknife in the Northwest Territories. In addition, some information is available for 16 cities across Canada.

Reading the CPI To describe price changes and track them over time, the index is calculated using a "base year" for comparison with other years. In the base year the index is always set at 100. The CPI is currently produced using a 1986 base year. In 1996, the CPI was 135.6. This means that consumer prices were 35.6% higher in 1996 than in 1986. In general, prices of services rose more between 1986 and 1996 (43.8%) than prices of goods (28.9%).

Putting the CPI in your social trend tool kit The CPI is often used to adjust incomes, wages and other payments so that purchasing power is not eroded when prices change. Some social programs — such as the Canada Pension Plan, Old Age Security, and the Guaranteed Income Supplement — have an adjustment built in to take into account, either wholly or in part, changes in the CPI. This is called indexing for inflation. Some labour-management contracts contain cost-of-living allowances (COLA) clauses, which tie wages and salaries to the CPI in some manner. Many other financial arrangements also use the CPI as a guide to determine appropriate payments, such as rental agreements and child support payments.

Provincial and city CPIs In 1996, consumer price indexes for the provinces ranged from a high of 138.5 in British Columbia

and Manitoba, to a low of 129.5 in Newfoundland. CPIs are also calculated for 18 selected urban areas. Vancouver, with a CPI of 139.1 in 1996, experienced steeper price increases over the 1986-1996 period than did other urban areas. Consumer price indexes for the provinces and cities do not indicate which of the provinces or cities have higher or lower consumer price levels. Some prices, such as those for shelter, are very difficult to compare, since markets for housing and rental accommodation can vary widely from province to province and from city to city. Provincial and city CPIs indicate only that some provinces or cities have had higher or lower rates of consumer price change since the base period.

Comparing prices in different places — inter-city indexes Some measures do exist, however, for making limited comparisons of prices between cities. Inter-city indexes of retail price differentials compare a given urban area's prices for selected groups of consumer goods and services with a

Many prices have risen since 1986	
Tuition fees	240.5
Rail, bus and other inter-city transportation	199.8
Drivers' licences	194.6
Parking	188.6
Auto insurance	188.1
City bus and subways	183.5
Newspapers	183.0
Spectator entertainment (excluding cablevision)	180.6
Water	172.9
Use of recreation facilities and services	171.1
Cablevision (including pay TV)	166.9
Property taxes	165.7
Child care	163.0
, while few have dropped	
Telephone services	99.4
Home entertainment equipment and services	96.9
Lettuce	83.9

combined average. For this index, the combined city average equals 100. According to the index for October 1995, food from stores was more expensive in Vancouver — with an inter-city index of 110 — than in the 10 other cities compared.

Misconceptions about the CPI The Consumer Price Index is often perceived as the only measure of the rate of price

CANADIAN CST SOCIAL TRENDS BACKGROUNDER

Dealing with quality change

The objective of the Consumer Price Index is to measure pure price change. As a result, the quantity and quality of the goods and services included in the CPI basket have to be held constant. In the real world, however, the quality of products is continually changing as new models and varieties replace earlier ones.

Price increases attributable to improvement in the quality of a product are not treated as pure price changes. A common adjustment technique is to determine which feature of a product caused its quality to change. If, for example, air conditioning becomes a standard feature in the newer model of a certain car, then the price of the new model would include that feature. To compare the prices of the older and newer models, however, they must first be put on an equal footing; thus, the estimated value of air conditioning is added to the price of the older vehicle. The prices of the two vehicles can then be compared because the price of the air conditioning is included in both.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS BACKGROUNDER



Calculating constant dollars

The CPI is commonly used to remove the effects of inflation when comparing dollar values over time. Deflated values are referred to as "constant dollar" values. Without some measure of the change in prices from one period to the next, it would be difficult to make meaningful financial comparisons over time.

The following example shows how the CPI is used to re-express current dollar values in constant 1986 dollars.

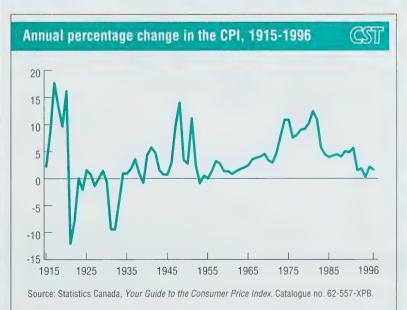
	(1)	(2)	(3)
	Expenses In Current Dollars	All-items CPI (1986=100)	Expenses in Constant 1986 Dollars
1985	20,000	96.0	20,833
1990	25,000	119.5	20,921
1995	30,000	133.5	22,472

The figures in Column (1) include the effects of price changes. These expenses are converted into constant 1986 dollars by dividing them by the corresponding 1986-based indexes shown in Column (2), and multiplying the result by 100 (the index of the base year). The results in Column (3) show the expenses for all three years with the effects of price changes removed.

Calculating percentage changes Percentage price changes can be calculated over any two periods; for example, between a given month and the previous month or between a given year and a previous year. The percentage change between any two periods can be calculated by dividing the more recent index by the older index, multiplying by 100%, and then subtracting 100%. The percentage change in the annual average index between 1995 and 1996, then, would be calculated as:

$(135.6/133.5 \times 100\%) - 100\% = 1.6\%$

In other words, prices in Canada rose 1.6%, on average, between the years 1995 and 1996.



Most retail prices higher in Vancouver and St. John's

Source: Statistics Canada, The consumer price index, Catalogue no. 62-001-XPB.



Inter-city indexes of retail price differentials, as of October, 1995

	Food from stores	Household operations and furnishings	Tansportation	Health and personal care	Recreation, education and reading	Alcoholic beverages and tobacco products
St. John's	109	107	106	100	106	131
Charlottetown	106	101	95	104	103	104
Halifax	99	108	96	104	104	103
Saint John	103	98	95	104	102	104
Montréal	96	98	99	104	100	92
Ottawa	103	104	96	105	103	95
Toronto	101	103	102	101	103	96
Winnipeg	102	95	88	96	94	104
Regina	105	99	89	93	95	110
Edmonton	95	91	91	98	94	105
Vancouver	110	103	112	99	104	120
% of CPI basket	12.6	10.4	17.2	4.4	10.2	5.5

1996 annual average co	nsumer p	rice indexes (1986=100)	C ST
Cities		Provinces	
Vancouver	139.1	British Columbia	138.5
Regina	139.0	Manitoba	138.5
Winnipeg	138.6	Saskatchewan	138.3
Toronto	137.5	Ontario	136.6
Victoria	137.4	Alberta	135.6
Saskatoon	137.1	Prince Edward Island	133.5
Ottawa	136.9	Quebec	133.1
Calgary	135.6	Nova Scotia	132.5
Thunder Bay	135.4	New Brunswick	131.2
Edmonton	135.2	Newfoundland	129.5
Yellowknife	134.7		
Montreal	133.7		
Charlottetown-Summerside	133.4		
Québec	133.0		
Halifax	132.6		
Whitehorse	132.3		
Saint John	131.3		
St. John's	129.5		

Source: Statistics Canada, The consumer price index, Catalogue no. 62-001-XPB.

change. But the CPI reflects the experience of Canadians buying consumer goods and services and, as such, is just one of many price change measures

available. Statistics Canada publishes a number of measures of price change for different purposes, including the industrial product price indexes, the raw materials price indexes, the new housing price indexes, and the farm products price indexes.

Nor is the CPI a cost-of-living index, though it is sometimes mistakenly referred to as such. A cost-of-living index would have to measure price changes that consumers experience when maintaining a constant standard of living. As prices change, consumers can switch between products. A cost-of-living index would have to take this substitution effect into account. Instead, the CPI is based on the fixed basket concept, where the proportions of goods and services in the basket are unchanging, except for periodic updates to the basket.

• Statistics are published monthly in *The consumer price index*, Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 62-001-XPB and quarterly in *Consumer prices and price indexes*, Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 62-010-XPB. For more information see *Your Guide to the Consumer Price Index*, Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 62-557-XPB.

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Reaching Smokers

by Wayne J. Millar

Cigarettes are addictive

hile the last few decades have seen an overall decline in smoking among Canadians, some smokers have been particularly resistant to quitting or cutting down. Higher smoking rates are observed among individuals with lower levels of education. Moreover, smoking rates are not the only aspect of tobacco use that varies with a smoker's level of education. It also affects the likelihood of smokers attempting to quit or cut down, their reasons for quitting and where they draw their information about smoking.

Smoking cigarettes can kill you

Because cigarette smoking is one of the most common and preventable causes of illness and

death, factors that influence smoking rates must be considered when designing public health programs and allocating health care dollars. Educational attainment is one such factor linked to a wide range of smoking-related behaviours and attitudes.

Tobacco smoke can harm your children

with Lower Educational Attainment

Smoking rates down Between 1977 and 1994, smoking rates declined among men and women aged 20 and over, though the decline was more pronounced among men. The percentage of men who smoked cigarettes daily or occasionally fell to 33% from 46%¹, an average annual percentage change (AAPC) in rates of -2.22%. Despite the sharper decline in smoking rates for men, it remained higher than the women's rate which decreased more slowly to 29% from 35%¹, an AAPC in rates of -1.05%.

Generally, people with lower levels of schooling are more likely to be smokers. While the overall trend in smoking rates between 1977 and 1994 was down among both men and women regardless of education, the pace of decline varied. For men, smoking rates took a downturn at all education levels.

In contrast, women's smoking rate declined primarily among the university-educated; this group's AAPC (-3.18%) also had the sharpest drop. For women, the two lowest educational attainment groups had the smallest declines in smoking rates. The AAPC for those with elementary education or less was -0.21%, and for those with some or completed high school, it was -0.31%. In fact, women with some or completed high school education had the highest smoking rates: 38% in 1977 and 36% in 1994. Similarly, men with the smallest decline in rates — those with elementary schooling or less — also had the highest smoking rates among men.

¹ Age-standardized smoking rates.

Because smoking rates declined more quickly among those with more education than among those with less, the gap in smoking rates between people with high levels of education and those with low levels has widened since the mid-1970s. For men, the difference between the highest and the lowest smoking rates rose from 26 to 29 percentage points between 1977 and 1994, while for women, it doubled from 11 to 22 percentage points. This pattern of a widening gap between higher and lower education levels is not unique to Canada.²

Kicking the habit contributes to lower smoking rates Two events can trigger a downturn in smoking rates: people do not start smoking or smokers quit. Much of the overall decline in rates since 1977 has been attributed to smokers kicking the habit. By 1994, of all Canadians aged 20 and over who had ever smoked,

about half had quit. Higher percentages of people with high levels of education had quit than those with low levels. This finding mirrored the faster declines in smoking rates among those with high levels of education. Smokers who had not gone beyond high school, particularly women, were the most resistant to quitting. Among people who had ever smoked, just 36% of women and 43% of men with elementary school or less had quit by 1994. In contrast, 66% of women and 64% of men university degree-holders who had ever smoked had quit.

Concern for future health was cited by 51% of men and 44% of women as the leading reason they stopped smoking. Cost ranked a distant second (13% of men and 12% of women). There was no clear-cut pattern in reasons for quitting by educational attainment. However, former smokers with higher levels of education were more likely to cite social

and family pressures as factors in their decision to quit.

Smoking restrictions reduce smoking Prohibiting or discouraging smoking in various settings can reduce the prevalence of smoking. For example, although few former smokers reported that smoking restrictions had affected their decision to quit, previous research has shown that the introduction of restrictions in the workplace reduces the number of cigarettes smoked per day.³ According to the NPHS, higher percentages of smokers with high levels of education encountered smoking restrictions than those with low levels, possibly because the latter are not

as likely to be in situations where they

cannot smoke.

People at all educational levels most frequently mentioned public places as having smoking restrictions (62%). Workplace prohibitions were also common, but exposure to them varied by the smokers' level of education: 38% of smokers with elementary school or less reported restrictions at work, compared with 48% of those with university degrees. The reason for this may lie in the fact that place of work and level of education are often linked. Workers with higher levels of education are more likely to be in white-collar occupations and work in office buildings. Office buildings are more likely to have prohibited smoking than workplaces in industries such as construction or transportation where most work may be done outdoors.

Smoking restrictions with friends and family were even more closely associated with level of education. For instance, just 10% of smokers with elementary school or less reported restrictions in their own or friends' homes; for those with university degrees, the percentage was 27%. As well, higher proportions of university-educated smokers reported transportation-related restrictions, which may be attributable to smoking bans in private vehicles owned by friends and family. These patterns are

CSI Average annual percentage change (AAPC) in smoking rates, by sex and educational attainment, Canada, 1977 to 1994 Smoking rate AAPC in rate 1977 1994 1977 to 1994 % **Both sexes** 40 31 -1.66 Elementary or less 44 37 -0.70Some or completed high school 43 38 -0.88Some postsecondary 37 31 -1.20Postsecondary certificate or diploma 36 30 -1.20University degree 27 16 -2.81 46 33 -2.22Men Elementary or less 54 47 -0.93Some or completed high school 50 40 -1.47Some postsecondary 39 34 -1.43Postsecondary certificate or diploma 37 31 -1.58University degree 28 18 -2.4835 29 Women -1.0533 30 -0.21Elementary or less 36 -0.31Some or completed high school 38 29 Some postsecondary 34 -0.7329 Postsecondary certificate or diploma 35 -0.97University degree 27 14 -3.18Note: Figures are based on weighted age-standardized rates for the population aged 20 and over. Source: See Backgrounder, "Data Sources.

² J.P. Pierce, M.C. Fiore, T.E. Novotny et al., "Trends in cigarette smoking in the United States: Educational differences are increasing," *Journal of the American Medical Association*, Vol. 261, No. 1, 1989.

³ W.J. Millar, "Evaluation of the impact of smoking restrictions in a government setting," *Canadian Journal of Public Health*, Vol. 79, no. 5, September/October 1988.

consistent with the tendency for former smokers with higher levels of education to acknowledge social and family pressures as having influenced their decision to quit.

Mass media deliver the message Media advertising is an important component of the national strategy to discourage smoking. In fact, most smokers have obtained information about smoking and tobacco use from the mass media. Over half of male and female smokers reported that television, radio or newspapers were a source of such information. The next most frequently mentioned source was doctors, nurses and other health professionals.

Although the major source of information about smoking for smokers at all levels of education was the mass media, its prominence varied by level of education. Those with lower levels of education were the least likely to mention the mass media. This group of smokers was also less likely than others to mention pamphlets, books or magazines. In contrast, health professionals ranked prominently as sources of information about smoking among groups with lower levels of education, but their influence was less among smokers with higher levels of education.

One source of information that smokers cannot avoid is the health warnings on cigarette packages. Not surprisingly, awareness of these messages was almost universal. However, recollection of specific messages varied with the smoker's level of education. For instance, comparatively few women with elementary education or less recalled messages about the relationship between smoking and life expectancy (38%), heart disease (35%) or pregnancy (66%), while men and women with a university degree were more aware of these health messages. Although awareness of health messages on cigarette packages improved with higher levels of education, there were exceptions. For instance, among male smokers, there was little difference by level of education in recollection of smoking messages about lung cancer and heart disease.

Less educated were less likely to quit or cut down The NPHS presents some evidence that antismoking messages are heeded. A substantial share of smokers had tried to quit in the year before they

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS BACKGROUNDER



Data sources

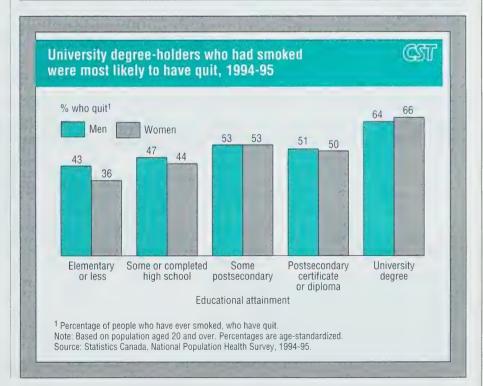
The longitudinal National Population Health Survey (NPHS) was designed to measure the health status of Canadians and discover more about the determinants of health. Detailed data on smoking-related behaviour and attitudes were collected between June 1994 and June 1995 in a Health Canada-sponsored supplement to the NPHS. The supplement's sample size was 13,400 respondents (12,010 aged 20 and over), and the survey achieved a 91% response rate. Trends in smoking rates are based on data obtained from surveys conducted between 1977 and 1995. In these surveys, "smokers" were persons who were smoking cigarettes either daily or occasionally at the time of the survey.

Analytical techniques Because this analysis examines the association between smoking and educational attainment, it focuses on the population aged 20 and over, most of whom have completed their formal education. The age distribution of the populations in the education categories varies substantially, so age-standardized smoking rates were calculated using the total 1994 population of Canada.

Changes in annual age-standardized smoking rates were determined by calculating the average annual percentage change (AAPC) for the rates from 1977 to 1994.²

¹ Labour Force Survey smoking supplements (1977, 1979, 1981, 1983, 1986), Canada Health Survey (1978-79), Health Promotion Surveys (1985, 1990), National Alcohol and Drug Survey (1989), General Social Survey (1991), National Population Health Survey (1994-95).

 2 The AAPC is (e $^8\text{-}1)100$, where ß is the slope from a regression of log rates with year as the independent variable.





were interviewed: 39% of men and 42% of women. An almost equal number smoked less than they had 12 months earlier. Nevertheless, those whose smoking rate was highest — women with some or completed high school — were the least likely women to have tried to quit (37%) or cut down (38%). In comparison, another group of women with a high smoking rate — those with elementary education or less — was the group most likely to have tried to quit (53%) or to have cut down (50%).

The men least likely to have tried to quit smoking were those with elementary education or less (33%); these men also had the highest smoking rate. Yet of all male smokers, they were the most likely to have cut down (55%).

Conclusions The trend toward not smoking has affected all groups of men and women, but not equally. Although smokers with lower levels of education (particularly women) have been most resistant to quitting, the results of the NPHS show that substantial numbers of them tried to quit or cut down during the previous year. These smokers may find quitting a particular challenge, as they were among the groups who encountered the fewest smoking restrictions.

Health concerns are the overriding factor in a smoker's decision to quit. However, the most resistant smokers were less likely than others to recall warnings on cigarette packages about the relationship of smoking to heart disease, life expectancy and potential harm to

a baby if the mother smokes while pregnant.

While television, radio and newspapers were cited by all groups as the major sources of information about smoking, smokers with low levels of education indicated the mass media was less prominent than among smokers with higher levels of education. This group was also less apt to get information from pamphlets, magazines, or books, but relied on the advice of health professionals more than smokers with higher levels of education. Although few former smokers stopped smoking due to their physicians' advice, most visited their doctor regularly, providing an opportunity for intervention by the medical profession. Over 80% of smokers had consulted a physician in the previous year for one reason or another.

Prevalence of smoking was affected by restrictions in various settings. High smoking rates among people with the lowest levels of education may be associated with their milieu — at home, at work, or with friends — in which smoking is either not discouraged or prohibited. Similarly, low smoking rates among individuals with high levels of education may be related to the restrictions they encounter. Successful attempts to quit smoking also vary with education and are linked with smoking restrictions.

Current data show variations in the decline of smoking by sex and education. Smokers' sources of information about smoking and tobacco, exposure to smoking restrictions, and awareness of

Smokers' sources of information about smoking and tobacco use, 1994-95 AII Some or Some **Postsecondary** Sources of completed postcertificate or levels of **Elementary** University information education or less high school secondary diploma degree % TV/radio/newspapers 57 55 55 59 59 68 32 43 28 26 Health professionals 33 33 32 30 30 32 36 45 Pamphlets/magazines/books Family 16 15 16 16 14 15 Friends 10 11 10 9 10 Note: Respondents were able to indicate more than one source. Source: Statistics Canada, National Population Health Survey, 1994-95.

health messages on cigarette packages all vary by sex and education. This suggests that these differences should be taken into account in designing and developing effective health promotion and smoking cessation programs. These findings also indicate that alternative approaches may be required to reach smokers with lower levels of education.

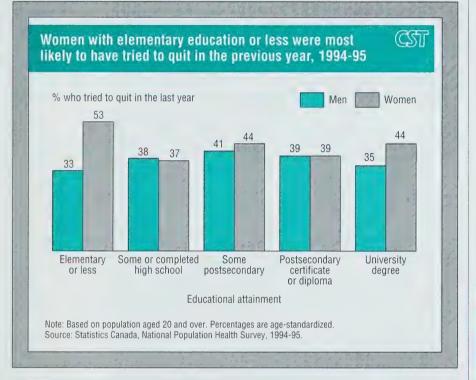
Of course, this picture of smoking is incomplete. By age 20, most people who are going to smoke have already started. Much of the antismoking initiative is directed at young people to discourage them from becoming smokers. Studies of the smoking behaviour of people younger than age 20, particularly the longitudinal studies made possible by the NPHS, may

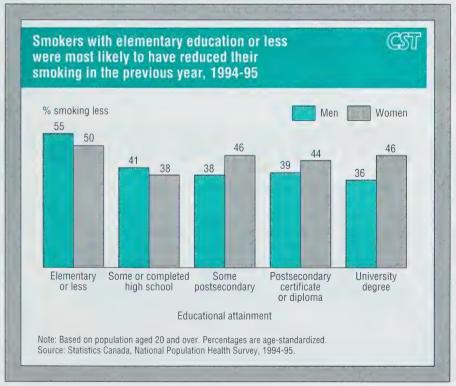
shed light on the processes of smoking initiation and cessation.

- This article was adapted from "Reaching Smokers with Lower Educational Attainment," *Health Reports*, Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 82-003-XPB, Autumn 1996.
- For information on the smoking habits of youth, see "Youth smoking in Canada," *Canadian Social Trends*, Winter 1996.

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Dementia among seniors

by Mary Anne Burke, Joan Lindsay, Ian McDowell and Gerry Hill

he aging of the Canadian population has focused a spotlight on people suffering from Alzheimer's disease and other forms of dementia. Dementia, a clinical syndrome characterized by severe losses of cognitive and emotional abilities, interferes with daily functioning and the quality of life. According to the recent Canadian Study of Health and Aging, the number of Canadian seniors with dementia is likely to more than triple by the year 2031.

The public and private costs to society as the numbers of elderly Canadians with dementia increase will be high, given the nature of care they will require. Since dementia is a disease of aging, the impact will be disproportionately high for women, as there are more elderly women than men. Also, women shoulder a much larger load than men in caring for those suffering from dementia. Canadians will be increasingly challenged to find equitable, cost-effective and viable solutions for the care of those suffering from dementia.

Prevalence of dementia The prevalence of dementia increases sharply with age. According to the 1991 Canadian Study of Health and Aging (CSHA), 8% of Canadians over age 64 suffered from various forms of dementia — including 2.4% of seniors aged 65 to 74, 11% of those aged 75 to 84 and 35% of those over 84. There are more women than men with dementia: in 1991, 68% of those over age 64 with dementia were women. While women's greater longevity may explain some of this difference, it does not account for it all. Age-specific rates also indicated women are more likely than men to be diagnosed with dementia.

Alzheimer's disease is the most prevalent form of dementia, accounting for 64% of all cases in 1991. Vascular dementia accounted for another 19% of cases, and other forms of dementia for the remaining 17%. While women were more likely than men to suffer from Alzheimer's, the opposite was true for vascular dementia. In 1991, among women over age 64 suffering from dementia, 69% were reported to be suffering from Alzheimer's disease and 14% from vascular dementia; among men the same age with dementia, 53% were reported to have Alzheimer's and 30% to have vascular dementia.

Current care practices People suffering from dementia are fairly evenly divided between those in institutions and those living in the community under the care of informal, usually unpaid, caregivers. In 1991, 51% of the 252,600 Canadian seniors with dementia lived in institutions — a relatively costly form of care. Community care is dependent on an informal caregiver. Although daughters and, to a lesser extent, sons may be available to care for parents with dementia, they tend

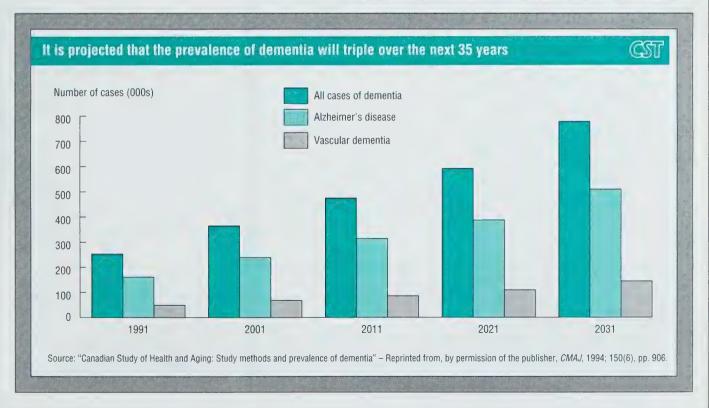
¹ Ostbye, T., and E. Crosse. "Net economic costs of dementia in Canada," *Canadian Medical Association Journal*. 1994; 151:1457-1464.

Dementia increases with age and is more prevalent among women



	A	Age-specific rate					
Age group	Living in the community	Living in institutions	Total				
		(per 1,000)					
65-74							
Male	10	437	19				
Female	20	406	28				
Both sexes	16	419	24				
75-84							
Male	71	536	104				
Female	68	532	116				
Both sexes	69	533	111				
85 and over							
Male	173	618	287				
Female	180	673	371				
Both sexes	178	660	345				
All							
Male	39	555	69				
Female	45	572	86				
Both sexes	42	569	80				

Source: "Canadian Study of Health and Aging: Study methods and prevalence of dementia" – Reprinted from, by permission of the publisher, *CMAJ*, 1994; 150(6), pp. 906.



CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS BACKGROUNDER



Data source and definitions

The Canadian Study of Health and Aging (CSHA) is a joint effort of the Department of Epidemiology and Community Medicine at the University of Ottawa and the federal government's Laboratory Centre for Disease Control. The CSHA working group conducted a study of the elderly in 18 centres across Canada, excluding the Yukon, Northwest Territories, Indian reserves and military bases. The first phase of the study was conducted from February 1991 to May 1992. A representative sample of people aged 65 and over was chosen randomly: 9,008 living in the community and 1,255 in institutions. Participation rates were 72% for residents of the community and 82% for those in institutions.

One of the initial objectives of the study was to determine the prevalence of dementia in these two populations. Respondents in the community were interviewed at home and screened for the likely presence of dementia using a simple psychometric test. Those who failed the test, and all residents of the institutions, were offered a standardized examination which resulted in a clinical classification into one of four categories: cognitively normal, Alzheimer's disease, vascular dementia, or other types of dementia.

Dementia is a clinical syndrome characterized by progressive loss of cognitive function, in particular memory, leading to inability to function physically and socially. The syndrome is associated with many diseases of the brain. In late life the most common are Alzheimer's disease and vascular dementia. Other less common causes of dementia include genetic diseases (e.g. Huntington's disease), infectious (e.g. Creutzfeldt-Jacob disease) and degenerative diseases such as Parkinson's disease.

Alzheimer's disease (AD) — a primary degenerative disease of the brain — is characterized by progressive memory impairment, beginning with loss of short-term memory. The decline in cognitive functioning is progressive. In severe cases there is extreme disability, which frequently requires 24-hour care. Alzheimer's disease does occur before age 65 but the prevalence at younger ages is too low to measure. The prevalence of Alzheimer's disease increases exponentially with age.

Findings from the 1991 CSHA confirmed a number of previously reported risk factors for Alzheimer's: family history of dementia; a history of head injury; age; and low educational status — possibly as an indicator of other socio-economic factors affecting the risk of AD, such as poor diet. A weak link to aluminum exposure was also established, but evidence was not clear, underscoring the need for further research. The CSHA also identified, for the first time, a link between AD and occupational exposure to glues, pesticides and fertilizers. This relationship also requires further study. The use of non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs (NSAIDs) was identified as a preventive factor that should be explored in further research.¹

Vascular dementia is an irreversible, progressive disease usually caused by arteriosclerosis of the cerebral arteries. It progresses by steps, with sudden decrements as more brain tissue is damaged by the underlying diseases, followed by periods of stability.

to have conflicting roles in terms of caring for their own families. Typically, then, elderly women care for their ailing spouses either until their husband dies or until their own declining health makes it impossible. As wives tend to outlive their husbands, women, more often than men, do not have full-time community caregivers and thus require institutional care. In 1991, for example, 54% of women with dementia were living in institutions, compared with 44% of men. Once institutionalized, women with dementia are also there longer: in 1991, women with dementia could expect to live on average 1.4 years in an institution compared with just 0.6 years for men.²

Women have shouldered a disproportionate share of the informal care burden, either caring for their husbands or their ailing parents. The economic and human costs to women as care providers have not been quantified but are potentially enormous.

Mounting pressures for new models of care There are three issues that will necessitate careful planning for new models of care. First, the increase in the number of seniors with dementia will add to the institutional care required — and to the attendant costs. In 1993-94, Canadian seniors accounted for 75% of beds and 64% of spending by residential care facilities in Canada. Costs have continued to increase in these facilities, reaching \$94 per resident day in 1993-94, with the cost of direct care (nursing services, therapeutic services and medications, but not meals and administrative expenses) rising to \$46 per resident day.³

Second, the devolution of health care already necessitates new models of health care. For example, for the past decade, the workload of hospitals has continually shifted from inpatient to outpatient treatment, with outpatient visits increasing by 13% between 1986-87 and 1992-93, and the number of hospital beds dropping steadily by 14% over the same period. As such, ongoing patient care for all but the

¹ The Canadian Study of Health and Aging (CSHA) Working Group, 1994. "The Canadian Study of Health and Aging: Risk Factors for Alzheimer's disease in Canada." *Neurology*, November 1994

² Hill, G., W. Forbes, J-M Bethelot, J. Lindsay and I. McDowell. "Dementia among seniors," *Health Reports*, Catalogue no. 82-003-XPB, Autumn 1996

³ Statistics Canada, 1996. *Residential Care Facilities*, 1993-94, Catalogue no. 83-237.

⁴ Statistics Canada, 1996. *Hospital Annual Statistics*, 1992-93, Catalogue no. 83-242, and *Hospital Indicators*, Catalogue no. 83-246.



acutely ill has been increasingly shifted to informal caregivers. A similar move towards devolution of long-term institutional care may also be likely. The provincial government in Ontario, for example, already plans to shift responsibility for long-term health-care from the province to municipalities.

Third, recent time-use surveys show that women already face a considerable "time crunch" in coping with their current paid and unpaid responsibilities. A drop in the number of women able and willing to provide the intensive informal care required for a growing number of people suffering from dementia will add to the increased demand for high-cost institutional care; at the very same time, pressures to reduce institutionalization may grow.

No matter what scenario unfolds, communities will be challenged to find ways of sharing the heavy burden of caring for those suffering from dementia.

Conclusions Current projections estimate that by 2031, the number of Canadian seniors with dementia — many of whom will be women — will triple. The social and fiscal costs to society of having such a large group of ill people are not yet calculable. New studies suggesting that hormone replacement therapy can delay the onset of dementia and improve memory and concentration for those already affected offer some hope,⁵ as do other research efforts currently under way.⁶ Strategies that focus on a clear understanding of the risk factors and the development of preventative strategies may improve quality of life and reduce the number of Canadians with dementia. Both the challenge and the solution may lie in moving dementia from a private to a community health issue.

⁵ Veterans Affairs Puget Sound Health Care System, Tacoma, Washington. Lead researcher, Dr. Sanjay Asthana.

⁶ Canadian Study on Health and Aging Working Group, 1994.

Mary Anne Burke was an analyst with Canadian Social Trends, Gerry Hill is an analyst with the Social and Economic Studies Division, Statistics Canada; Ian McDowell is an analyst with the Department of Epidemiology and Community Medicine, University of Ottawa; and Joan Lindsay is an analyst with the Cancer Bureau of the Laboratory Centre for Disease Control.



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CENSUS UPDATE



A Brief Guide to 1996 Census Products and Services

On May 14, 1996, when people across the country completed a Census of Population questionnaire, they were contributing to a database which remains one of Canada's richest sources of social and economic information. In the next few months, these data will start to become available. Packaging them so they are meaningful and accessible to users is key to ensuring the value of the data is maximized. With this in mind, Statistics Canada is introducing several new features to its products and services for the 1996 Census.

New in 1996

New information was collected in 1996: Census results will be published for the first time on unpaid household activities, place of work for all levels of geography, mode of transportation to work and population group (visible minority).

Small area data are available sooner: Census data at smaller levels of geography will be available much sooner than in previous years. On each release day, profile data will be available for areas at the community levels (census subdivisions and census divisions); data for areas as small as census tracts, enumeration areas and forward sortation areas will follow within a month of the initial release

Increased accessibility through electronic media: More users in both business and government asked that census materials be available in electronic formats for use in personal computers. Even librarians, who cautioned that they needed support to handle the shift from paper to electronic products, indicated they preferred the increased flexibility of electronic information. While some key print products will be retained, more census data will now be produced on CD ROM and on diskette. Electronic formats will contain Windows-based presentation and tabulation software, to make the data easy to use. And for the first time, users will be able to obtain public good information (including reference material and release tables) free of charge on the Internet through Statistics Canada's web site: www.statcan.ca.

Geography products have been improved: The quality of many of the maps used for census data release has been improved; also, the map series on federal electoral districts has been re-introduced. GEOREF, the Windows-based electronic tool which allows clients to explore the links between different levels of geography, has also been improved with the addition of enumeration area reference lists.

Census tabulations available by postal code: As part of the standard product line, basic summary tabulations and area profiles will be available for forward sortation areas, which represent the first three characters of the postal code. Data for the full six-character postal code can be obtained as a custom service, subject to confidentiality restrictions.

Revised pricing structure: The pricing system for Census products has been revised and many prices have been reduced, particularly those for geography products.

The Products and Services Line

With these innovations and other improvements, the 1996 Census Products and Services Line has much to offer. The Line comprises five major categories — reference, geography, standard data, analytical and custom data products. Each category is supported by resource materials and geography tools to help clients use the data.

Reference products

Anyone working with census data will refer frequently to the Census Catalogue of Products and Services, the Census Dictionary, the Census Handbook and various Technical Reports. Designed to make Census products and services easier to find, understand and use, geography reference products can help locate a client's required geographic areas as accurately as possible.

■ Geography Products

Digital geographic products provide databases to clients who use geographic information systems (GIS) or other software with mapping capabilities. Printed maps and reference material are also available.

Standard Data Products

The standard data products combine census variables in different ways to meet general needs. Six product lines will be produced for the 1996 Census, including:

- Population and dwelling counts
- The Nation series
- Census area profiles
- Basic summary tables
- Dimensions series, and
- Public use microdata files

Of these, selected tables from *The Nation* series will be available free of charge to anyone with access to the Internet.

COMING SOON...

Analytical products

Statistics Canada's experts will continue, as always, to publish ground-breaking studies and analytical reports based on census results. Watch for these in all major Statistics Canada periodicals, including *Canadian Social Trends*.

■ Custom Data Products and Services

Census custom products meet the specific needs of users. Both custom cross-tabulations and semi-custom profiles can be produced to the client's particular specifications for content, format, output and geographic area. Data can be tabulated from the 1971 to the 1996 censuses, and from both the 100% and 20% databases. Custom products are available in print and electronic formats, with either Windows- or DOS-based viewing software. All work is done on a cost-recovery pricing basis and service is available across the country in all Regional Reference Centres.

Getting the data you need

Obtaining data from the 1996 Census has never been easier. Each of Statistics Canada's Regional Reference Centres has a collection of current publications and reference documents which can be consulted or purchased, along with microcomputer diskettes, CD ROMs, maps and other products. Each Centre provides a wide range of additional services, including custom data preparation, consultation, presentations, workshops and lectures.

Selected libraries across Canada receive Statistics Canada's full range of products in a variety of media, and carry census data. Census information can also be purchased from book stores which stock Government of Canada publications.

The newest route to all statistical information profiling Canada's business, economy and society, including census information, is through Statistics Canada's Internet address — www.statcan.ca. Some census results are already available on this easy-to-navigate and fully searchable site. The 1996 Census Preview of Products and Services is also there for clients to consult; it offers the most current details on all census products, their prices and availability.



RESULTS FROM THE 1996 CENSUS

Results from the 1996 national enumeration have already begun to be released, with more to follow. Census variables — the subject matter areas into which data are grouped — will become available in the following phases:

APRIL, 1997

Population and dwelling counts

OCTOBER, 1997

Age and sex¹
Marital Status/common-law
Families (Part 1: type and structure)

NOVEMBER, 1997

Immigration and Citizenship

DECEMBER, 1997

Mother tongue Home language Official and non-official languages

JANUARY, 1998

Aboriginal

FEBRUARY, 1998

Ethnic origin
Population Group (Visible Minorities)

MARCH, 1998

Labour force activities
Occupation and industry
Unpaid household activities
Place of work
Mode of transportation to work

APRIL. 1998

Education

Mobility and migration

MAY, 1998

Sources of income Family and household income

JUNE, 1998

Families (Part 2: social and economic data)
Occupied private dwellings
Households and housing costs

On each day of release, selected information from *The Nation* series will be featured in *The Daily*. Selected data will also appear on Statistics Canada's website. All variables will have information published at levels for Canada, the provinces and territories, and some will also have data for census metropolitan areas. For the first time, area profile data at the census division and census subdivision levels will be published on release day for some variables. For more information, contact your nearest Statistics Canada Regional Reference Centre.

¹ 100% age and sex data will be available on request beginning July, 1997.



EDUCATORS' NOTEBOOK

Suggestions for using Canadian Social Trends in the classroom

Lesson plan for "The Consumer Price Index: A Measure of Inflation"

Objectives

- Students should understand how price changes affect their purchasing power.
- □ Students should become aware that there may be strategies for dealing with price changes, such as altering their consumption patterns or asking for an increase in allowance.

Method

1. Have the students examine the prices in the table below, and ask them if the costs of school lunches and entertainment have increased or decreased. Ask the students to consider what additional information is required to determine how the price changes will affect their purchasing power.

Item	1994	1995	1996
Sandwich	\$1.75	\$2.00	\$2.05
Milk	.75	.75	.90
Apple	.50	.60	.65
Potato chips	.60	.75	.80
Tickets for sports events	4.00	4.50	5.50
Tickets for other events	4.50	5.00	5.75
Compact discs	18.00	17.10	15.00

2. The students will need to determine the quantity of each item they purchase each week. They can then calculate how much these expenditures would have cost them in 1994, 1995, and 1996. An example is given below for 1994. Performing the same calculation for 1995 and 1996 results in expenditures of \$29.26 in 1995 and \$31.26 in 1996.

Item	Quantity Per Week	Average Price	Total Spending Per Week
Sandwich	5.0	\$ 1.75	\$ 8.75
Milk	5.0	.75	3.75
Apple	2.5	.50	1.25
Potato chips	2.5	.60	1.50
Tickets for sports events	1.0	4.00	4.00
Tickets for other events	0.5	4.50	2.25
Compact discs	0.3	18.00	5.40
Total			\$26.90

3. To convert these totals to price indexes, the students should make 1994 their base year. The base year is the year whose prices serve as a base for comparing prices in other years. The base year index is set to 100. To complete the index, divide spending in 1995 and 1996 by base year spending, then multiply these answers by 100.

Answer: For 1995, the students' index is 108.8 (29.26/26.90 x 100); for 1996, it is 116.2 (31.26/26.90 x 100). In this example, in order to buy the same things in 1996 that they bought in 1994, the students would have to pay 16.2% more. The students should now be able to see that the price increases have reduced their purchasing power.

4. Ask the students what strategies they could adopt to deal with the increase in prices. Students might suggest changing their spending patterns, buying cheaper products, asking for an increase in allowance, or getting a part-time job.

Using other resources

- Consumer price indexes can be found in Cansim matrices 7440-7454, and 7463-7478, available on Statistics Canada's E-STAT CD-ROM.
- ☐ Your Guide to the Consumer Price Index, Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 62-557-XPB.



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EDUCATORS – You may photocopy *Educators' Notebook* and the article "The Consumer Price Index: A Measure of Inflation" for use in your classroom.



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	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996
POPULATION								
Canada, July 1 (000s)	27,379.3	27,790.6	28,120.1	28,542.2	28,947.0	29,255.6 R	29,615.3 R	29,963.6 F
Annual growth (%)	1.8	1.5	1.2	1.5	1.4	1.1 R	1.2	1.2
Immigration ¹	178,152	202,979	219,250	241,810	265,405	234,457 F	215,470 R	208,791 F
Emigration ¹	40,395	39,760	43,692	45,633	43,993	44,807	45,949	47,230 F
FAMILY								
Birth rate (per 1,000)	15.0	15.3	14.3	14.0	13.4	13.2	12.9	12.5
Marriage rate (per 1,000)	7.0	6.8	6.1	5.8	5.5	5.5	5.4	5.3
Divorce rate (per 1,000)	3.0	2.8	2.7	2.8	2.7	2.7	2.6	*
Families experiencing unemployment (000s)	808	879	1,096	1,184	1,198	1,130	1,044	*
LABOUR FORCE								
Total employment (000s)	13,086	13,165	12,916	12,842	13,015	13,292	13,506	13,676
goods sector (000s)	3,928	3,809	3,582	3,457	3,448	3,545	3,653	3,681
– service sector (000s)	9,158	9,356	9,334	9,385	9,567	9,746	9,852	9,995
Total unemployment (000s)	1,065	1,164	1,492	1,640	1,649	1,541	1,422	1,469
Unemployment rate (%)	7.5	8.1	10.4	11.3	11.2	10.4	9.5	9.7
Part-time employment (%)	15.0	15.3	16.3	16.7	17.2	17.0 57.6	16.6	18.9 57.6
Women's participation rate (%) Unionization rate – % of paid workers	58.3 34.1	58.7 34.7	58.5 35.1	58.0 34.9	57.9 34.3	07.0	57.4	37.0
	54,1	34.7	00.1		04.0			
INCOME								
Median family income	43,995	45,618	46,389	47,199	46,717	48,091	48,079	*
% of families with low income (1992 Base)	11.1	12.3	13.0	13.5	14.6	13.5	14.2	*
Women's full-time earnings as a % of men's	66.0	67.7	69.6	71.9	72.2	69.8	73.1	*
EDUCATION								
Elementary and secondary enrolment (000s)	5,075.3	5,141.0	5,218.2	5,284.2	5,347.4 P	5,402.4 P	5,465.5 E	5511.0
Full-time postsecondary enrolment (000s)	831.8	856.6	903.1	931.0	951.1 P	964.7 E	961.2 E	961.2
Doctoral degrees awarded Government expenditure on education – as a % of GDP	2,573 5.5	2,673	2,947	3,136	3,356 6.2	3,552 5.9	3,621 ^E 5.7	3,532
	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.4	0.2	0.0	0.7	
HEALTH	20.4	07.0	07.4	07.1	07.0	00.0	00.0	
% of deaths due to cardiovascular disease - men	39.1	37.3	37.1	37.1 40.7	37.0 40.2	36.3 39.7 R	36.0 39.3	*
- women % of deaths due to cancer - men	42.6 27.2	41.2 27.8	41.0 28.1	28.4 R	27.9	28.3	30.3	29.3
% of deaths due to cancer – men – women	26.4	26.8	27.0	27.3	26.9	27.0	27.3	27.9
Government expenditure on health – as a % of GDP	5.9	6.2	6.7	6.8	6.7	6.2	6.1	*
JUSTICE								
	000	070	1.056	1,077 R	1 070	1,038 R	995	*
Crime rates (per 100,000) - violent - property	908 5,271	970 5,593	1,056 6,141	5,868 R	1,072 5,524 R	5,212 R		31
- homicide	2.4	2.4	2.7	2.6	2.2	2.0	2.0	*
GOVERNMENT						_		
	475 070 4 9	400 F0F 7 P	100 745 5 P	007.045.0.9	01401700	015 507 4	000 404 0	
Expenditures on social programmes ² (1995 \$000,000) — as a % of total expenditures	56.1 R	56.0 R	56.8 R	207,245.8 R 58.5 R	60.0 R	60.1	208,494.6	*
- as a % of GDP	23.0 R	24.5 R	26.7 R	28.8 R	29.4 R	28.2	26.9	*
UI beneficiaries (000s)	3,025.2	3,261.0	3,663.0	3,658.0	3,415.5	3,086.2	2,910.0	*
OAS and OAS/GIS beneficiaries ^m (000s)	2,919.4	3,005.8	3,098.5	3,180.5	3,264.1	3,340.8	3,420.0	3,500.2
Canada Assistance Plan beneficiaries ^m (000s)	1,856.1	1,930.1	2,282.2	2,723.0	2,975.0	3,100.2	3,070.9	*
ECONOMIC INDICATORS								
GDP (1986 \$) – annual % change	+2.4	-0.2	-1.8	+0.8	+2.2	+4.1	+2.3	+1.5
Annual inflation rate (%)	5.0	4.8	5.6	1.5	1.8	0.2	2.1	1.6
Urban housing starts	183,323	150,620	130,094	140,126	129,988	127,346	89,526	101,804
P Preliminary PD Final postcensal estimates PP Preliminary postce PP Preliminary postce Professor year ending June 30. PP Preliminary postce For year ending June 30.	nsal estimates		m Figures as ated postcensa		IR Revise R Revised	d intercensal es d data	stimates F Final data	

STATISTICS CANADA - CATALOGUE 11-008-XPE

CANADIAN

SOCIAL TRENDS KEEPING TRACK

Growth in breast cancer cases due to aging population



The number of newly diagnosed cases of breast cancer more than doubled between 1969 and 1996, from 6,900 to an estimated 18,600. However, the age-standardized rate of

breast cancer increased much less rapidly, from 78 to 107 per 100,000 women. This suggests that the aging of the population is largely responsible for the increasing number of cases. (Advancing age is the most important risk factor for breast cancer.) Meanwhile, although incidence rates were rising, mortality rates remained relatively stable at about 30 to 32 per 100,000 until 1990. In the 1990s, rates began to drop, reaching 29 per 100,000 in 1993, the lowest rate since 1950.

Health Reports, Autumn 1996 Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 82-003-XPB

1996 employment growth almost double that of 1995



Employment increased by 189,000 jobs in 1996, up from 99,000 in 1995. Job gains among adult women (110,000) exceeded those of adult men (99,000). However, all the gains

for men were in full-time employment, while two-thirds of those for women were in part-time employment. The number of jobs held by 15to 24-year-olds declined by 20,000 over the year. Job growth was uneven across the country, with Quebec and the Atlantic provinces losing employment and Ontario and the Western provinces recording gains.

Perspectives on labour and income, Spring 1997 Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 75-001-XPE

Gap in life expectancy between men and women narrows



Life expectancy at birth, a key indicator of the population's health status, rose slightly to new highs for both men and women in 1995. Life expectancy was 81.3 years for females and 75.3 years for males. This 6.0 year difference between men and women marks a new low in the gap that has historically existed. The gap actually peaked in 1978, when women could expect to live 7.5 years longer.

Births and Deaths, 1995 Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 84-210-XPB

Cellular Telephones



Nearly one in ten Canadians (2.6 million) were cellular phone subscribers at the end of 1995, up 39% from the previous year. Despite the rapid rise in subscribership,

however, net profit after taxes for cellular providers was down over the previous year, at 3.8% of revenue (\$87.6 million) in 1995, compared with 5.3% (\$94.9 million) in 1994.

Communications service bulletin, Vol. 26, No. 3 Statistics Canada, Catalogue No. 56-001-XPB

Men and women harassed by different kinds of stalkers



Criminal harassment ("anti-stalking") legislation was first enacted in 1993. A sample of police reports filed in 1994 and 1995 shows that 80% of stalking victims were women

and 88% of perpetrators were men. Well over half of women victims (58%) were stalked by a current or former partner; another one-quarter (24%) were stalked by a casual acquaintance. In contrast, men were most likely to be stalked by a casual acquaintance (46%), and only rarely (13%) by a former partner. In one-quarter of all incidents, the stalker was identified but not charged; this happened most often among victims stalked by a business acquaintance and among men harassed by an ex-wife.

Juristat, Vol. 16, no. 12 Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 85-002-XPE

Family income unchanged in 1995



Average family income in 1995 was \$55,247, virtually the same as the previous year, after adjusting for inflation. The stability of overall average family income masks changes

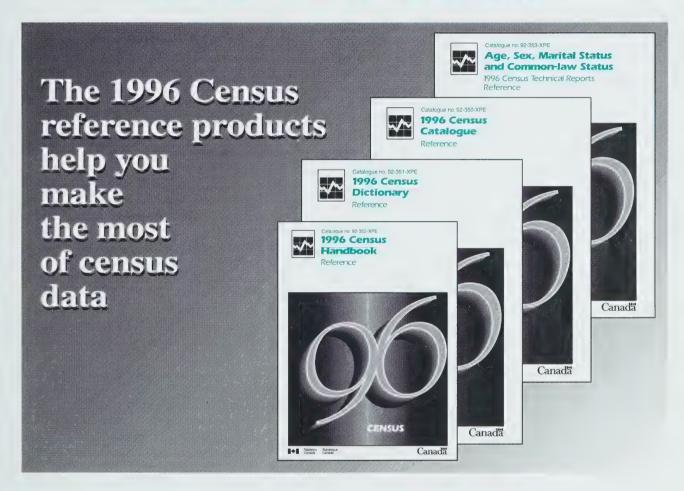
among families in different quintiles, since only families in the bottom quintile did not experience a change in average family income.¹ Incomes rose among families in the top two quintiles as investment and other income (mainly pensions and private annuities) increased from 1994 to 1995; families in the middle quintiles saw their incomes decline because of falling earnings. The peak year for family income was 1989 (\$58,024 in constant 1995 dollars).

Income distributions by size in Canada, 1995 Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 13-207-XPB

¹ Families are divided into five groups of equal size called quintiles. The 20% of families with the lowest incomes are in the bottom quintile; the 20% with the highest incomes are in the top quintile



Your Guides to the 1996 Census



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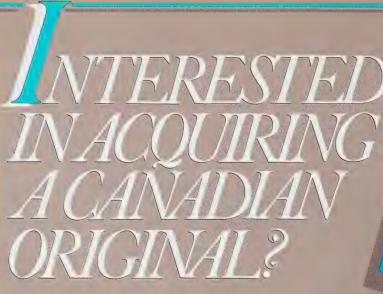
The 1996 Census Technical Reports

examine the quality of the data for census variables such as age, sex, marital status and common-law status.

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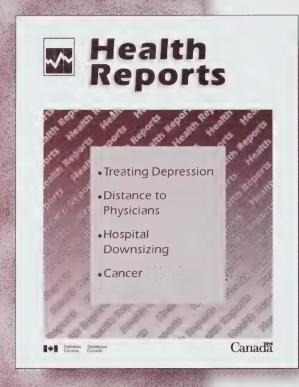




WOMEN'S WORK CONTINUITY D YOUNG MEN'S EARNINGS



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ON OUR COVER:

The Guide's Home, Algonquin (1914), oil on canvas, 102.6 x 114.4 cm. Collection: National Gallery of Canada, Ottawa.

About the artist:

Arthur Lismer was born in Sheffield, England in 1885. At 13, he won a scholarship to the Sheffield School of Art; at 15, he became an illustrator for a city newspaper and sketched many famous people, including George Bernard

Shaw and Winston Churchill. In 1906, he attended the Académie des Beaux-Arts in Antwerp. He emigrated to Canada in 1911, arriving in Toronto in January. There, he met Lawren Harris, A.Y. Jackson and Tom Thomson. Lismer exhibited in his first Group of Seven show in 1920. He was elected a full member of the Royal Canadian Academy in 1946. Lismer died in 1969. **The Guide's Home, Algonquin**, which was the home of George Rowe and Larry Dickson, was painted using a French impressionist technique reminiscent of Pissaro.

SOCIAL

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Changes in women's

Work continuity

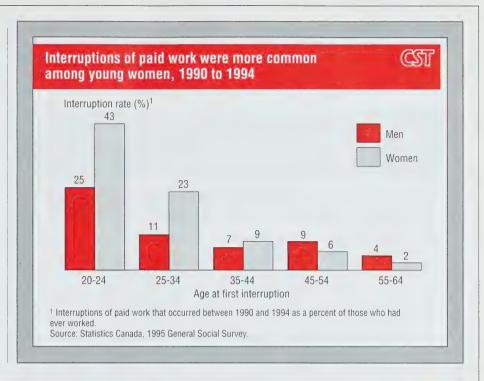


BY JANET FAST AND MORENO DA PONT

ong-term employment interruptions play a significant role in shaping the career paths of individuals who experience them. Employment discontinuity has been shown to affect future employability, advancement opportunities, earnings, and the attitudes of employers and co-workers. Since work and income are considered important to our sense of identity, employment discontinuity can affect our psychological and emotional well-being as well.

Because women are more likely to interrupt their employment for a long period of time, their attachment to the labour force has traditionally been viewed as weaker than men's. But over the last 30 years, women's participation in the paid workforce has increased dramatically. By 1995, the vast majority (91%) of women aged 20 and over had worked for pay at some time during their lives. Contemporary women have also shown increased commitment to lifelong careers, reporting fewer and shorter periods of employment discontinuity than earlier generations of women. However, women continue to experience more career discontinuity than men, and they experience longer interruptions than men. This article describes how women's employment continuity bas changed.

Work interruptions occur early in women's careers Almost two-thirds (62%) of all women who had ever worked experienced an interruption in paid work of six months or more. In contrast, just over one-quarter of men (27%) experienced work discontinuity. Regardless of the historical era in which an interruption in paid work occurred, most occurred when women were in their early 20s. Between 1990 and 1994, 43% of women in their early 20s who had ever worked experienced their first interruption. In contrast, 9% of those aged 35 to 44 experienced their first interruption. Interruptions were even less common among those aged 45 and over. The high rate of interruptions in paid work among younger women may be related to their limited work experience and also to higher fertility rates compared with older women.



CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS BACKGROUNDER



Defining an interruption in paid work

"Work interruptions" was one of the topics covered by the 1995 General Social Survey (GSS). Respondents who had worked steadily for pay for at least six months were asked if they had ever stopped working for pay for a period of six months or more. Respondents who had done so are said to have experienced a long-term interruption in paid work, whether they returned to work or not after the stoppage. Respondents were asked when each interruption of six months or longer started and why it started. If they had returned to paid work, they also were asked how long the interruption had lasted, whether they had returned to the same job, whether the job had similar duties and whether they had returned to a full- or part-time job. 1 Detailed information was collected for as many as four long-term work interruptions. These retrospective questions allow the work interruption patterns of several generations of women to be examined.

The GSS relied on the ability of respondents to recall work interruptions over a lifetime of work. Consequently, this study is subject to recall error because some people may have forgotten interruptions that occurred many years before. This recall task may have proven more difficult for people with longer work histories.

People under age 20 and full-time students who had worked part-time were excluded from the study because of

short-term labour market experience. Many older workers indicated that their first interruption occurred at retirement. While retirement has become less permanent than it once was, the nature and consequences of this type of interruption are likely to be quite different from those due to other causes. Consequently, interruptions at retirement were not considered to be interruptions in this study.²

Work interruptions were first investigated in a supplement to the Labour Force Survey in 1972. Statistics Canada's Family History Survey in 1984 also examined work interruptions and found that 50% of women and 18% of men who had ever worked experienced a work interruption lasting one year or more.³ This earlier survey underestimated the differences between men and women because it excluded any interruptions that lasted less than one year, many of which could have been for childbirth. The 1995 GSS addressed this problem by inquiring about work interruptions of six months or more.

¹ Respondents were not asked if they returned to the same employer. A return to the same employer has implications for seniority rights, pension credits and maintenance of rates of pay.

² For more information on retirement see "Retirement in the 90s," *Canadian Social Trends*, Autumn 1996.

³ Thomas K. Burch, *Family History Survey - Preliminary Findings*, Statistics Canada. Catalogue no. 99-955-XPB, 1985.

Most women return to work Most women (71%) return to paid work after an interruption. Many of them (31%) settled back into the same job and duties. About one-quarter returned to a job with

similar duties, while slightly less than half found new jobs.

However, less than half (47%) of women who had full-time jobs returned to a full-time job; a quarter returned to part-time

work. The remainder had not yet returned to paid work at the time of the survey. Many women who worked part-time before they interrupted their paid work returned as part-time employees (42%), while 37% had not re-entered the paid labour force as of 1995. The Canadian National Child Care Survey shows that 31% of part-time workers with children under age 13 worked part-time because of family responsibilities. Since most lengthy interruptions of paid work for women are a result of family responsibilities, a woman's return to paid work may be greatly influenced by the availability of supports such as daycare facilities and home support for children and, in some cases, help for elderly parents.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS BACKGROUNDER

JEK (Ĉ)

Measuring the duration of interruptions in paid work

The duration of work interruptions reported in this article refers to those who have returned to paid work (i.e., completed interruptions). On average, women's completed interruptions lasted 4.6 years. However, 29% of women who experienced interruptions had not returned to paid work by the time they were interviewed in 1995 (i.e., incomplete interruptions). If incomplete interruptions were also included in the calculation, the average duration would be 8.0 years. Some women who had incomplete interruptions at the time of the survey may eventually return to paid work, thereby increasing the duration further, while others may never return.

The completed interruptions for young women are brief in part because those who had the shortest interruptions would have returned to paid work in 1995. As more young women return to paid work, the average duration of their completed interruptions will increase. However, it is unlikely that it will ever approach that of older women.

Another way of looking at how quickly women return to paid work is to examine the percentage of women who return to paid work within a certain period of time, say two years. The value of this approach is that it covers both complete and incomplete interruptions.

Work interruptions of younger women were much shorter than those of older women



Age in 1995	Ever worked for pay ¹	Interrupted paid work ²	Returned to paid work within two years of the start of the first interruption ³	Average duration of first completed interruption
			%	years
Total	91	62	35	4.6
20 to 24	76	33	52	1.0
25 to 34	95	52	62	1.4
35 to 44	96	65	46	3.4
45 to 54	97	70	28	5.6
55 to 64	92	72	18	8.1
65 and over	78	64	7	11.1

¹ As a percent of all women.

² As a percent of women who ever worked for pay.

3 As a percent of women who interrupted their paid work.

Source: Statistics Canada, 1995 General Social Survey.

Women's work interruptions are getting shorter Women's first completed interruptions are now much shorter than they were — an average of 1.4 years for women 25 to 34 compared with 8.1 for women 55 to 64. Shorter interruptions (for women) may have occurred because attitudes toward the role of women in the family and toward paid work have changed. Examining the interruption patterns of older women may give a glimpse of the work attitudes and conditions they experienced when they first started paid work and when their families were first formed. For example, most women aged 55 to 64 in 1995 had started their first job in the 1950s and experienced interruptions during the 1950s and 1960s. In contrast, most women aged 25 to 34 in 1995 had started their first paid jobs in the 1980s and most of their long-term interruptions occurred in the late 1980s and early 1990s.

In the 1950s and 1960s, women often left the labour force for extended periods to care for their children. This is reflected in the lengthy career interruptions of older women. Today, young women interrupt their careers for much shorter periods. In the 1950s, only one out of eight women who interrupted their paid work returned to paid work within two years. In the 1990s, over half (55%) returned to work within two years.

Women interrupt their careers for family-related reasons Women's role as caregiver within their families is evident from the work interruption data.

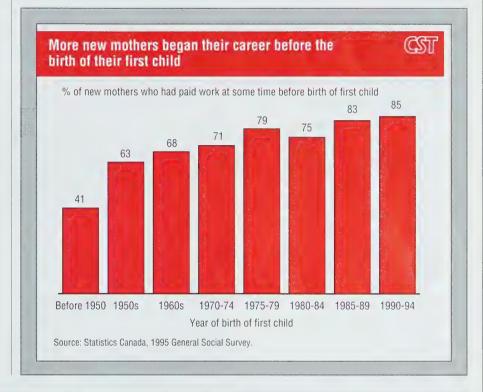
Marriage, maternity leave and care of children or elderly relatives (family-related reasons) were the reasons for 62% of women's interruptions of paid work. Although these reasons are still dominant, they are less prevalent than they once were. In the 1950s, family-related reasons accounted for 88% of all women's interruptions, while economic reasons¹ accounted for less than 1%. In contrast, in the early 1990s, less than half (47%) were family-related while economic reasons had grown to represent 22% of all women's interruptions of paid work. Factors that may have influenced this change include lower fertility rates, delayed childbearing and changes in the workplace that enable women to resume work after childbirth.

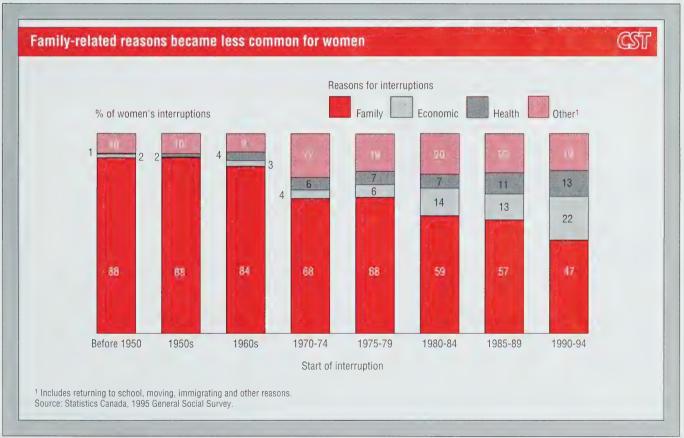
Contemporary women have fewer children², more frequently delay childbearing until they have established their careers, are less likely to interrupt their careers for six months or more for childbirth or child

care, and return to paid work after childbirth much more quickly than new mothers of earlier generations.

Looking back at mothers who gave birth to their first child in the 1950s, 63%

had steady paid work at some time prior to giving birth, of whom 39% took at least six months leave of absence from paid work at childbirth. Sixty-five percent of women who interrupted their paid





¹ Includes layoff or end of contract, lack of work, business or company closure and seasonal work.

² David Ford and François Nault, "Changing Fertility Patterns, 1974 to 1994," *Health Reports*, Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 82-003-XPB, Vol. 8, no. 3, Winter 1996

work for the birth of their first child returned to paid work afterwards, but only 1% did so within two years of the start of the interruption. Although many employed mothers of the 1950s interrupted their work because of childbirth, 20%

interrupted their paid work more than three years before the birth of their first child, usually for reasons of marriage or personal or family responsibilities.

By the early 1990s, 85% of new mothers worked for pay at some time prior to the

birth of their first child. Fifty-seven percent of employed new mothers interrupted their paid work at childbirth. Unlike mothers of the 1950s, 78% of new mothers who interrupted their paid work returned to work after the birth of their child, 56% within two years of the start of the interruption.

Education: a factor in work interruptions In general, women with more education experience fewer work interruptions.³ These findings are expected, as those with more education usually have the most marketable skills and are therefore able to obtain the highest paying and most stable jobs. As well, perhaps those with higher levels of education have the greatest incentive to return quickly to paid work after an interruption because they have the most to lose in foregone earnings. University graduates were least likely to experience interruptions and also had by far the shortest interruptions.

Implications of work interruptions

Work interruptions have more serious implications for women than men in terms of earnings, employability and long-term economic well-being because women experience more frequent and longer work interruptions. Many women report not returning to paid work at all and nearly one quarter of those employed full-time before an interruption returned to part-time work. Childbirth and child care remain the predominant reasons for a hiatus in a career, often resulting in interruptions lasting longer than a year.

When a woman does return to paid work, the role of caregiver does not end. Part-time jobs may be viewed as a way of improving the balance between family and job responsibilities. Part-time employment may also be the only available option after a lengthy interruption. Skills may have deteriorated or job requirements may have increased, making it difficult to find a full-time job. Regardless of the reason why women work in part-time jobs, current earnings are affected.

³ On average, older women have less education than younger women. Age and education interact to influence both the likelihood and duration of interruptions in paid work. Education has a significant effect on interruptions after accounting for differences in age.

Recent new mothers were more likely to interrupt their paid work at child birth Mothers who worked at some time prior to the birth of their first child Interrupted Interrupted Did not interrupt three or more paid work for six paid work for six Year of birth years before months or more at months or more at of first child birth of first child birth of first child birth of first child % All new mothers 47 43 10 29 25 Before 1950 46 1950s 20 39 41 1960s 13 49 38 1970-74 10 53 37 1975-79 7 47 46 4 50 46 1980-84 1985-89 6 50 44 57 38 1990-94 5 Source: Statistics Canada, 1995 General Social Survey.

Recent new mothers returned to paid work CST more quickly Mothers who interrupted paid work for six months or more at birth of their first child Returned to work **Average duration** of completed within two years Year of birth Completed after birth interruption at of first child interruptions of first child birth of first child vears All new mothers 34 81 5.1 Before 1950 64 1 10.6 1950s 65 8 11.6 82 19 7.1 1960s 1970-74 84 15 6.6 1975-79 91 25 6.1 42 3.4 1980-84 88 2.0 1985-89 84 45 1990-94 78 56 1.0 Source: Statistics Canada, 1995 General Social Survey.

Future income can also be affected. Canada Pension Plan. Ouebec Pension Plan and private pension plan benefits are based on both length of time over which contributions were made to the pension plan and the amount of earnings upon which contributions were made. Therefore, interruptions can reduce retirement benefits and the long-term well-being of women. Both the Canada and Ouebec Pension Plans have provisions to drop low-earning years for periods of reduced labour force attachment while caring for a child under the age of seven. However, private pension plans rarely have these provisions. Because interruptions also often coincide with a reduction in women's earnings,

women's ability to invest in Registered Retirement Savings Plans is also hindered.

The rapid pace of technological change may make re-entering the paid work force after an interruption in paid work more difficult as skills and qualifications become obsolete more quickly. This reality may induce people to accelerate their return to paid work. Certainly in today's world, the employability of those who remain out of the paid work force for extended periods is at risk because their once-valued skills may become obsolete and new skills may not have been

Conclusion Women are less likely today than they were in past decades to interrupt their paid work. In addition, those who do interrupt return to work, and they return more quickly than ever before. Increasing opportunities for postsecondary education have improved the employability of women. The introduction of legislation protecting the jobs of women on maternity leave has provided more recent cohorts of women with greater assurances of re-employment should they interrupt their paid work. Women's earnings are also increasing relative to men's and their earnings increasingly represent a larger portion of family income than in the past.

There will always be work interruptions. But the likelihood, frequency and duration of them is changing, and will probably continue to do so. With the adoption of more family-friendly work arrangements and employment policies, women are better able to remain in the work force and still care for children and other family members. Many other factors also influence work interruptions. Economic conditions, the life cycle, foregone income, decisions on how to care for children or elderly parents, attitudes toward the role of men and women within the family and availability of affordable daycare may all have an effect.

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University graduates are least likely to experience paid work interruptions

Average
duration of

Educational attainment in 1995	Interrupted paid work ¹	Returned to paid work within two years of first interruption ²	Average duration of first completed interruption
		%	years
University graduates	51	50	3.1
College graduates	61	46	4.1
Trade/technical school			
graduates	56	34	5.5
High school graduates	67	32	5.1
Never completed			
high school	65	18	6.7

¹ As a percent of women who ever worked for pay

Note: Respondents' highest level of education in 1995; interruptions may have occurred much earlier when respondents had less education. To reduce the impact of education upgrading, first interruptions due to a return to school are excluded from this table

² As a percent of women who interrupted their paid work.

Source: Statistics Canada, 1995 General Social Survey.

DECLINING EARNINGS OF YOUNG MEN

Generally speaking, newcomers in the job market start out with lower pay than older workers, then as they gain work experience, their earnings rise. Traditionally, the relative difference between wages of younger and older workers has been fairly stable, but since the early 1980s, the earnings gap has been growing. Furthermore, it now takes longer for young men with low earnings to reach a higher income bracket.

This article looks at the decline in the real (inflation-adjusted) earnings of male workers under age 35 that began in the 1980s, and the "legacy" of weaker earning power that has been left to young workers in the 1990s. The analysis is restricted to men because their labour force attachment has historically been stronger than women's over time (see "Changes in women's work continuity" in this issue).



WHAT HAPPENED IN THE 1980s

Earnings fell for men who already had low earnings During the 1980s, the earnings gap widened between working men in the top earnings quintile (20% of male workers reporting the highest earnings) and those in the bottom quintile (20% with the lowest earnings). Between 1981 and 1988, average weekly earnings rose 9% for men in the top quintile, but fell 4% for men in the bottom quintile.¹

This increase in the inequality of men's weekly earnings was due to changes in both hourly pay and in the number of hours worked for pay. Between 1981 and 1988, the real hourly wages of men in the bottom earnings quintile remained virtually the same, while those of men in the top quintile increased by almost 4%. At the same time, the average number of hours worked by men in the bottom quintile fell by about two hours per week (to 30.9 hours) while those of men in the top quintile rose by almost 2.5 hours (to 45.0 hours). In other words, well-paid workers worked longer hours and increased their weekly earnings while low-paid workers worked fewer hours and saw their earnings fall.

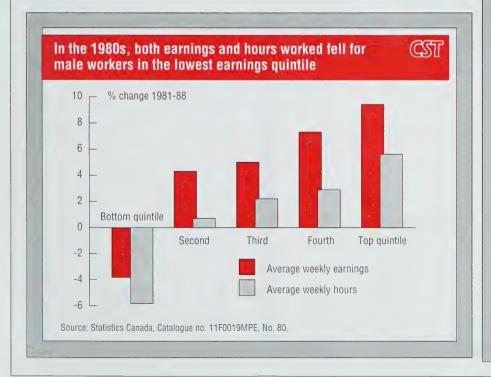
When the effects of wages and hours are isolated to see which factor contributed most to the widening gap in earnings, it is clear that the change in the number of hours was more significant. Between 1981 and 1988, for example, 30% of the

increased inequality can be attributed to changes in hours worked, and only 8% to changes in hourly wages. However, the two are highly interdependent, and fully 62% of the growth in men's weekly earnings inequality can be explained by the increasing tendency of high-paid workers to work longer hours (and for low-paid workers to work fewer hours).

Although changes in hourly wages appear to be fairly small, the overall figure masks substantial differences in wages earned by men in different age groups. Between 1981 and 1988, the hourly wages of working men aged 35 and over increased in real terms, while those of men under 35 dropped — by over 15% for those aged 17 to 24, and by about 3% for those aged 25 to 34. This finding echoes earlier studies that show rising disparities in the weekly and annual earnings of younger men.

Economic restructuring hurt earnings of young men Many economic developments may have contributed to widening gaps in earnings among working men of different ages. Two reasons often cited are de-unionization — the declining percentage of unionized workers — and de-industrialization — the shift of

Most comparisons for the 1980s are made between 1981 and 1988 because the labour market conditions — unemployment rates of 7.5% and 7.8%, respectively — were similar.



CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS BACKGROUNDER

Data sources and definitions

The issue of earnings inequality, and more particularly the widening of the gap between low- and high-income earners, has been of considerable interest to researchers in Canada and the United States since the late 1980s. René Morissette is the author of a number of studies on this subject, and this article presents some of the findings of his two most recent studies. Because the analysis addresses earnings over many years, it is necessary to study workers with a fairly stable lifetime work pattern; hence, the study is restricted to male workers, with particular emphasis on workers under the age of 35.

The analysis in the first half of this article, which tracks workers' weekly earnings during the 1980s, uses data for weekly hours worked and for hourly wage rates from a number of surveys: the 1981 Survey of Work History, the 1984 Survey of Union Membership, the 1986-90 Labour Market Activity Surveys, and the Labour Force Survey. Weekly low earnings ranged from \$143.90 in 1981 to \$138.40 in 1988 (1981 constant dollars). The second half of the article tracks the lengthening duration of periods of low annual earnings over almost 20 years. The study uses longitudinal data from Revenue Canada's T-4 Supplementary tax file for the period 1975 to 1993. Annual low earnings is defined as wages and/or salaries totalling less than \$21,073 per year (1993 constant dollars).

employment away from manufacturing jobs and towards services.² Although analysis shows that industrial shifts and changes in the unionization rate are significant, they explain no more than 28% to 30% of the weekly earnings inequality among men. More importantly, even when the effects of industry and unionization are controlled for, analysis shows that the real wages of young workers still declined throughout

the 1980s. This indicates that other factors contributed to the lost earnings of young men.

Some observers suggest that falling real minimum wages (down 6% to 20% depending on the province selected) and the rising percentage of workers employed by small firms (which generally pay less) have also contributed to the lower average earnings of young men. But analysis indicates that these factors

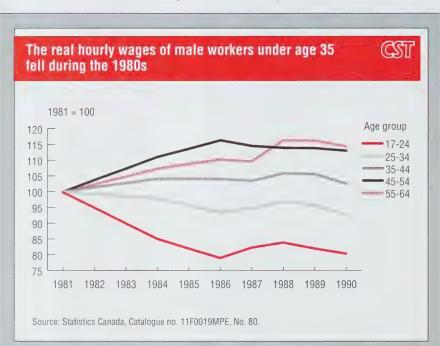
explain very little of the decline in their real wages.

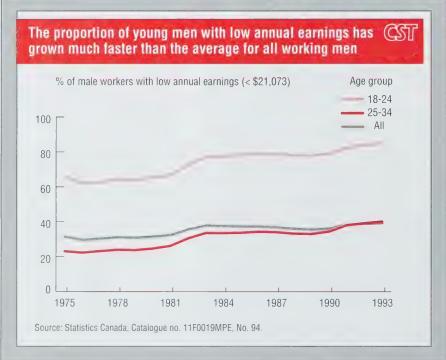
Rather, it appears that technological change has played a more important role in the growing divergence of wages. Machines now do many of the manufacturing jobs previously held by semi-skilled and unskilled workers, who have been displaced to lower-paying jobs, while the better-paying jobs have gone to more highly skilled workers. Young workers in the United States have seen a substantial growth in the earnings inequality between the skilled and the less-skilled: the difference in the hourly wage ratio of university- to high schooleducated men grew from 1.30 to 1.74 during the 1980s.3 And even though the ratio for young university graduates has risen more modestly in Canada — from 1.27 to 1.35 compared with high school graduates — the premium paid for highskilled labour is now greater than it was 15 years ago.4

Other explanations for the declining earnings of young men are difficult to test directly with existing data. It seems plausible, however, that increased competitive pressures following the 1981-82 recession and/or the breakdown of trade barriers have forced Canadian firms to make better use of their current employees. "Better use" may entail extending the hours of highly skilled workers to avoid incurring the costs associated with hiring new employees, such as recruitment and training, benefit packages, Employment Insurance, Canada/Quebec Pension Plan, Workers' Compensation, and so on. Such practices are most likely to discriminate against young people with little work experience. Also, firms that increase their use of part-time employees in order to improve their workforce flexibility may have put younger workers at a disadvan-

Taken together, all of these factors — the slack labour market, increasing com-

the West of the work of the wo





² Employment in the service sector tends to be polarized between high-wage "knowledge" jobs and low-wage personal service jobs. See "Are service jobs low-paying?" *Perspectives on Labour and Income*, Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 75-001-XPE. Spring 1996.

³ The figures apply to men with one to five years' work experience. K.M. Murphy and F. Welch, "The Structure of Wages," *Quarterly Journal of Economics*, 107, 1 (1992). pp. 284-326.

⁴ Calculated for Canadian men aged 17 to 24, for the period 1981 to 1988.

petition, technological change, increased cost of labour and hiring — helped to reshape the demand for labour in Canada in the 1980s. The effects are still with us, especially for younger male workers.

WHAT HAPPENED IN THE 1990s Upward mobility of young working men stunted Under the pressure of the 1981-82 recession, changes in hours worked, and especially in hourly wage rates for younger men, increased disparities in men's earnings. Earnings still had not returned to pre-recession levels by the end of the decade; consequently, the 1990-92 recession further eroded the position of workers who had not recovered from the blow 10 years before.

Given that weekly earnings of male workers have fallen since the early 1980s, it follows that the proportion of Canadian workers with low annual earnings has increased. Between 1975 and 1993, the percentage of men with low annual earnings (\$21,073 in constant 1993 dollars) grew from 31% to 39%. Furthermore, although an increase occurred in all age groups, it was more pronounced among younger workers; the proportion of low earners rose by 9 percentage points among working men aged 35 to 44 (17% to 26%), but it increased by 17 points among those aged 25 to 34 (23% to 40%)

and by 20 points among those aged 18 to 24 (65% to 85%).

But it is not clear whether this increase has occurred because new spells of low earnings are more frequent (rising incidence), or because they last longer (growing duration). The distinction between incidence and duration is important because the long-term effects are likely to differ depending on the cause. The data suggest that both factors underlie the growing proportion of working men with low earnings.

There are two reasons why the incidence of low earnings might have risen since the 1970s: a higher percentage of workers fell out of a higher earnings group into the low earnings bracket, perhaps because of layoffs, long spells of unemployment or declining wages; or a higher proportion of men received low earnings when they entered the workforce for the first time (or re-entered after a period of joblessness). The data do not support the first explanation; on the other hand, there is evidence, at least among young men aged 25 to 34, that the incidence of low earnings was rising because more new entrants (and re-entrants) to the workforce were earning less.

After accounting for the effects of the business cycle and for the drop in young men's real earnings, it is clear that work-

ers have also endured longer spells of low earnings. In the labour market of the early 1990s, young men encountered two major difficulties: one, the longer they had low annual earnings, the smaller their chances of rising into a higher earnings group; and two, their chances of ending a spell of low earnings were smaller after the mid-1980s. For example, over the period 1976-1984, a young man aged 18 to 24 with low earnings had a 20% chance of improving his employment income after one year; but between 1985 and 1992, the probability was only 17%. The chances of men aged 25 to 34 improving their earnings also declined after 1985, although the probability of "moving up" was still better than that for men under 25. In contrast, the data suggest that the upward mobility of older low earners aged 35 to 50 did not decline.

Conclusion The earnings position of young men deteriorated through the 1980s and continued into the 1990s. Even after taking account of the drop in real earnings and the relatively high unemployment rates observed since the mid-1980s, it was harder for young working men under age 35 to "move up" the earnings scale (earn more than \$21,073 per year). Many factors could explain the

The longer low earnings lasted, the less likely annual earnings improved Probability of moving above low annual earnings threshold Age group 18-24 25-34 35-50 Duration of spell of low earnings 1976-1984 1985-1992 1976-1984 1985-1992 1976-1984 1985-1992 % year 19.7 16.7 29.1 27.1 28.6 28.6 2 23.4 21.7 21.7 16.6 13.9 21.6 3 15.2 12.7 19.3 17.8 15.0 15.0 4 14.2 11.9 16.6 15.2 12.9 129 5 12.0 14.0 12.8 11.6 11.6 14.4 6 12.0 9.6 9.6 13.8 11.5 13.1 8.8 11.4 9.5 11.7 10.6 8.8 8 9.3 7.9 7.9 11.4 9.4 10.3 9.2 8.1 7.4 5.5 5.5 11.1 4.7 4.7 10 years or more 7.8 6.7 6.1 Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 11F0019MPE, No.94

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS BACKGROUNDER



Recent earnings and employment data suggest that the 1990s may offer nothing more to many young workers than a repetition of the poor earnings performance seen in the 1980s. This possibility is especially likely among workers under the age of 25. A recent study shows that the transition from school to the workforce is becoming increasingly difficult: the school-to-work transition range has increased from six years in 1984 to eight years in 1996. Furthermore, once these newcomers break into the ranks of the employed, they are more likely to be working fewer hours than their counterparts in the 1980s, and so generally receiving lower earnings. While any number of factors may have contributed to this decline, the result has been a lengthening of the period in which many young adults are working but are probably not making enough to be economically self-sufficient. The consequences of this phenomenon raise many concerns.²

¹ Deborah Sunter, *Labour force update*: "Youth and the labour market," March 1997, Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 71-005-XPB.

² Andrew M. Sum, Neil Fogg and Robert Taggart, "The Economics of Despair," *The American Prospect*, No. 27 (July-August 1996). At http://epn.org/prospect/27/27sum.html

declining upward mobility of young men. For example, more and more young people work part time while attending college or university; as a result, a larger proportion of them might have been "trapped" with low earnings for a long time simply because more of them had combined work and school. If this is the case for many young men, then the long-term effects of an extended period of low annual earnings may not be very great; however, if the reasons for their low earnings include those identified earlier in this article, the implications are more severe.

There is no doubt that young workers seeking employment in the 1980s and early 1990s faced greater problems finding well-paid permanent jobs than their predecessors in the 1970s. Some of these difficulties stemmed from the shift in employment from manufacturing to lower-wage service sector jobs, but the new demand for highly skilled workers was also a factor. It is also possible that technology has made it easier for firms to globalize operations and to contract out to small, low-wage suppliers; in short, firms may have used technology to pursue low-wage strategies that have depressed the earnings of young working men.

• For more information, see *Why has Inequality in Weekly Earnings Increased in Canada?*, Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 11F0019MPE, No. 80, and *Longitudinal Aspects of Earnings Inequality in Canada*, Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 11F0019MPE, No. 94.

René Morissette is a senior economist with Business and Labour Market Analysis Division, Statistics Canada.

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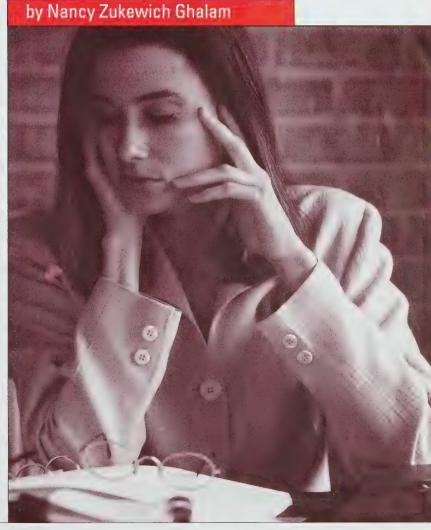
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different kinds of work. For much of the 20th century, men earned an income working in the labour force, while women were responsible for the unpaid work of caring for home and family. The mass entry of women into the labour market over the past few decades, however, has challenged this conventional division of labour according to sex and bas led to changing work and family roles for both men and women. Today, nearly balf the Canadian workforce is made up of women and the majority of busband-wife families are supported by the employment earnings of both spouses.

Attitudes Toward Women, Work and Family



Using data from the 1995 General Social Survey (GSS), this article asks: Are people's ideas still shaped by the traditional division of labour by sex or does their thinking reflect the new reality of women in the workforce? Attitudes are important for many reasons. For instance, they collectively shape public opinion and public policy. Attitudes also influence the behaviour of people and the choices available to them as employers, workers, family members and, more generally, participants in Canadian society.

Women's roles have changed dramatically Although men's roles have evolved in the past few decades, the changes for women have been much more dramatic. Men may be more involved with domestic work and child raising today than they were in the past, but being both a husband/father and a wage earner are still viewed as compatible roles. In the not so distant past, however, being both a wife/mother and a wage earner were not considered compatible by most people. As recently as 1982, only four out of ten Canadians agreed that women should participate in the labour force when they have young children, while nine out of ten agreed if the women had no young children. In the past, a woman was expected to leave the formal workforce when she married to fulfil her role as

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS BACKGROUNDER



Measuring attitudes

In the 1995 General Social Survey, the following questions were asked of a representative sample of the Canadian population.

- (1) In order for you to be happy in life, is it very important, important, not very important or not at all important to be able to take a paying job either outside or inside the home?
- (2) Can you tell me if you strongly agree, agree, disagree or strongly disagree with each of the following statements?
- ☐ An employed mother can establish just as warm and secure a relationship with her children as a mother who does not work for pay.
- ☐ Having a job is the best way for a woman to be an independent person.
- ☐ Both the man and the woman should contribute to the household income.
- ☐ A pre-school child is likely to suffer if both parents are employed.
- ☐ A job is all right, but what most women really want is a home and children.

Measuring attitudes accurately can be a tricky process. Careful thought goes into planning survey questionnaires, especially regarding the language and wording of the questions. The meaning of words and questions can vary, for example, across regions and from one age or socio-economic group to another. Also, the way a question is worded can lead a respondent to agree with the question as it is presented, instead of responding objectively. As well, questions may have a social desirability or politeness bias. For instance, respondents may choose answers that correspond with societal norms, or they may respond the way they think the interviewers expect them to, out of a desire to be polite and co-operative.



¹ Boyd, Monica, *Canadian Attitudes Towards Women: Thirty Years of Change*, Ottawa: Supply and Services Canada, 1984, p.12.

wife, mother and care giver — duties which centred on unpaid work in the domestic sphere. For instance, in 1960, less than 20% of married women were labour force participants, compared with 45% of women who were single, divorced, separated or widowed. Since 1984, however, married women have

been more likely than their unmarried counterparts to be in the labour force.

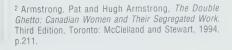
Some changes in attitudes seen...
Today, we live in a society in which half
of employed people are women and
dual-earner families are the norm. In
many respects, the attitudes of Canadians

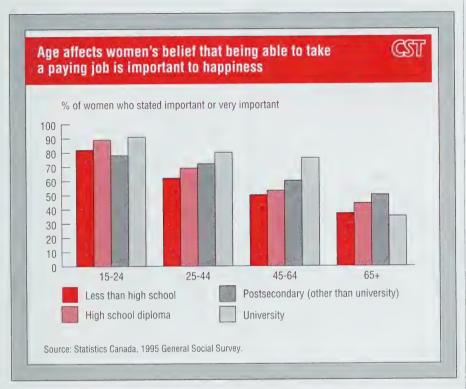
reflect this reality. According to the 1995 General Social Survey, 86% of men and 64% of women responded that it is important or very important to their personal happiness to be able to take a paying job. In fact, research has suggested that "[w]ork in the formal economy is an important source of feelings of usefulness and worth for many women."²

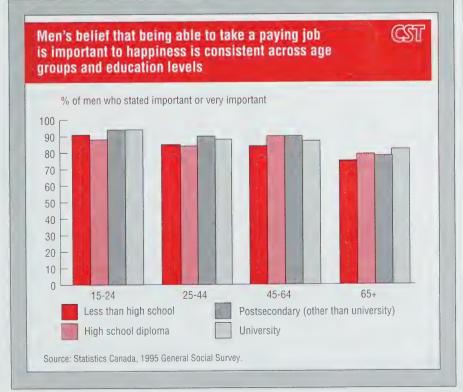
Analysis of Gallup poll data from the 1950s to the 1980s indicates that younger people and those with higher levels of education were most likely to hold views supportive of less traditional roles for women. This was also true of people's attitudes in 1995. For example, among those aged 15 to 24, the vast majority of both men (91%) and women (83%) stated that being able to work for pay is important or very important to their personal happiness. Among those aged 65 and over, this view was held by 75% of men and only 37% of women.

The attitudes of women appear to be more closely related to age than to educational attainment. According to the 1995 GSS, young women were more likely than their older counterparts to respond that being able to work for pay is important or very important to personal happiness, regardless of their educational background. For example, among women who had attended university, 80% of those aged 15 to 24 held this view, compared with 35% of women aged 65 and over. On the other hand, men's views on this subject tended to be similar at all ages and levels of educational attainment.

Independence important to women Overall, women were somewhat more likely than men to express attitudes that support women's participation in the labour force and acknowledge the expansion of women's roles beyond the domestic sphere. For example, 73% of women, compared with 68% of men, agreed or strongly agreed that both spouses should contribute to household income. The support for shared responsibility for family income, especially among women, may stem from the fact that working for pay also provides a certain







degree of economic security and independence. Employment earnings are the main source of personal income for the vast majority of people in Canada. Therefore, the inability to earn an income has a significant bearing on the risk of living in a low-income situation. In fact, many husband-wife families rely on the

earnings of both spouses to stay above the low income cut-offs.³

Surprisingly, contrary to the general trend, men and women with higher levels of schooling were somewhat *less likely* to agree or strongly agree that both the man and woman should contribute to household income. The decline was most

noticeable among men: agreement levels ranged from 73% of men with less than a high school diploma to 65% of men with a university degree.

Working for pay the best way for a woman to be independent On the issue of independence, women and men were equally likely to agree that having a job is the best way for a woman to be an independent person (45% and 44%, respectively), but women were twice as likely as men (10% versus 5%) to strongly agree with this statement. Furthermore, about 50% of men at all levels of educational attainment agreed or strongly agreed that a job is the best way for a woman to be an independent person. Among women, levels of agreement varied slightly, from 53% of women with a high school diploma to 59% of women who had attended university.

...yet traditional views persist The persistence of traditional views in a modern society has resulted in conflicting attitudes. People see value in women being in the workforce but feel that the family, especially young children, may suffer as a result. For example, 59% of men and 67% of women agreed or strongly agreed that an employed mother can establish just as warm and secure a relationship with her children as a mother who does not work for pay. At the same time, over half of those surveyed (59% of men and 51% of women) agreed or strongly agreed that a pre-school child is likely to suffer if both parents are employed. The latter question, however, referred specifically to children of pre-school age, whereas the former referred to children of all ages. This suggests that respondents may believe that younger children have a greater need for maternal attention than older children.

Overall, people's attitudes tended to correspond with their own work and family arrangements. For example, 78% of women who were employed or looking for a job in 19954 agreed or strongly agreed that an employed mother can establish just as warm and secure a relationship with her children as a mother

(\$\frac{1}{2}\text{II} Attitudes of people aged 15 and over, by sex, 1995 Very Not Not at all Don't important **Important** important important know1 Total2 Importance of being able to take a paying job 9 Men 37 49 1 3 100 Women 18 46 26 4 4 100 Total 27 48 18 3 4 100 Strongly Strongly Don't agree Disagree disagree know1 Total2 Agree Employed mother can have warm relationship with children 8 3 Men 51 27 10 100 14 53 20 2 9 Women 100 Total 11 52 24 3 10 100 Having a job is best way for a woman to be independent 5 3 Men 44 35 12 100 45 3 Women 10 33 8 100 Total 45 34 3 10 100 Man and woman should contribute to household income 0 Men 12 56 19 11 100 Women 15 58 15 9 100 Total 13 57 17 10 100 Pre-school child will suffer if both parents are employed 2 Men 11 48 28 9 100 Women 34 3 10 40 100 Total 11 44 31 3 9 100 A job is all right, but what most women really want is a home and children 4 42 32 2 Men 18 100 Women 6 40 37 4 11 100 Total 5 41 35 3 15 100

1 Includes "No opinion

2 Includes "Not stated". Also, rows may not add to 100% because of rounding

Source: Statistics Canada, 1995 General Social Survey,

³ See Statistics Canada, *Characteristics of Dual-Earner Families in 1994*, Catalogue no. 13-215-XPB.

⁴ Main activity during the 12 months prior to the survey.

who does not work for pay. In contrast, 64% of women whose main activity was keeping house agreed or strongly agreed that a preschool child is likely to suffer if both parents are employed.

Women remain primary care givers Despite high levels of female labour force participation, many Canadians believe that home and children take precedence over working for pay in women's lives. In 1995, 46% of both men and women agreed or strongly agreed that "while a job is all right, what most women really want is a home and family." However, a considerable share of people (34% of

men and 41% of women) disagreed or strongly disagreed with this statement, while the remainder (18% of men and 11% of women) responded that they did not know or had no opinion.

These data suggest that the expectation remains for women, even when employed, to maintain primary responsibility for home and family. In 1992, men and women aged 25 to 44 who worked full-time and had children under age 19 each spent, on average, about ten hours per day on total paid and unpaid work activities. However, these women devoted 1.6 hours more per day to unpaid work than their male counterparts.⁵

Conclusion Attitudes are dynamic and constantly changing. Our ideas and experiences shape the world around us and, in turn, the world shapes our ideas and experiences. As this analysis has shown, attitudes can vary by sex, age and level of education. However, characteristics such as age and education may be interrelated (i.e., people aged 25 to 44 are more likely than people over age 65 to have attended university). Thus, it is difficult to determine from this preliminary analysis which factors have the greatest impact on people's views.

Do Canadians still hold traditional ideas about appropriate roles for women and men? The findings of this analysis confirm previous research that suggests "traditional sex roles for women and men fade slowly." It is perhaps not surprising that people's attitudes toward women, work and family are somewhat contradictory and characterized by both traditional and contemporary views of the division of labour by sex.

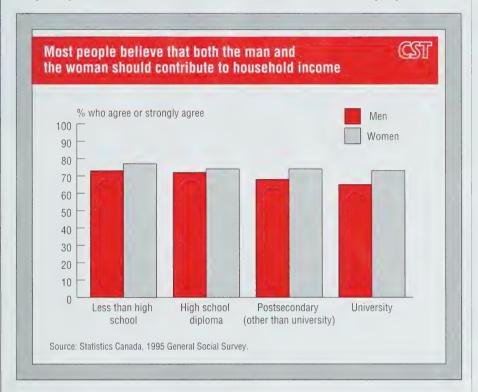
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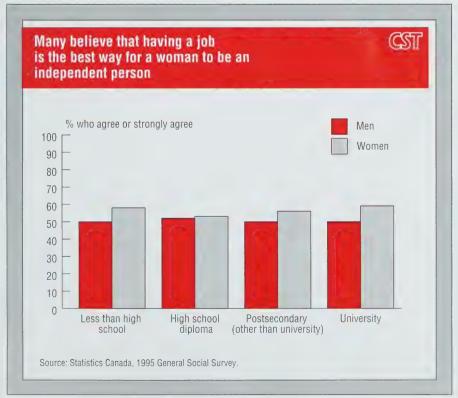
Frederick, Judith A., *As Time Goes By... Time Use of Canadians*, Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 89-544E.

6 Boyd (1984), p.23.

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CST





Growing Population

be 1996 Census counted 28,846,761 people in Canada on May 14, 1996, up 5.7% since the 1991 Census. This growth in population was due to international migration and natural increase (births minus deaths), in almost equal proportion. Almost one-quarter of the country's total population increase originated in the census metropolitan area of Toronto.

Population growth in British Columbia, Alberta and Ontario exceeded the national average, as did increases in the Yukon and Northwest Territories. In Newfoundland, the number of people enumerated fell for the first time since the province joined Confederation in 1949.

The 1996 census enumerated 17,864,646 people living in the 25 census metropolitan areas (CMAs), an increase of 6.4% over the 1991 Census. More than a third (36%) of Canada's population lived in the four most populous CMAs — Toronto, Montréal, Vancouver and Ottawa-Hull.

The rate of population growth slowed for most provinces and territories between 1991 and 1996, compared to the previous inter-censal period 1986 to 1991. Only Saskatchewan, Prince Edward Island and the Northwest Territories grew faster than in the previous five-year period. But despite the stability in the growth rate, Canada's average annual population increase of 1.1% is the highest of all G-7 industrialised nations. 1

Population continues to move west The 1996 Census confirmed that Canada's population is shifting from east to west. In 1951, 15% of Canadians lived in Alberta and British Columbia; by 1996, the percentage had increased to 22%. Ontario's share of the population also increased from 33% to 37%. Over the same period, the proportion of the population in the Atlantic

provinces fell from 12% to 8%, while the percentage in Quebec declined from 29% to 25%. Manitoba's share of the national population slipped from 6% in 1951 to 4% in 1996, while Saskatchewan's dropped from 6% to 3%.²

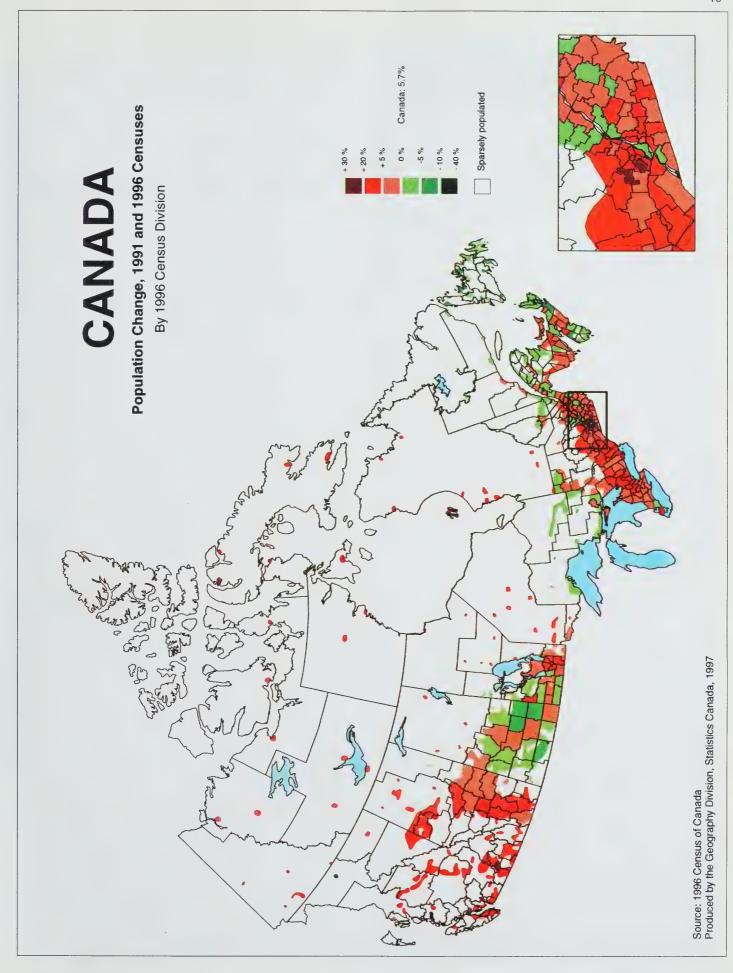
British Columbia British Columbia is the only province that has grown at a faster rate than the national average in every census since Confederation. And 1996 was no exception: the Census counted 3,724,500 people, an increase of 13.5%, more than twice the national average of 5.7%. International migration accounted for about 45% of this rapid growth, interprovincial migration for 35% and natural increase for the rest.

Contributing to British Columbia's high population growth was Vancouver. With the number of its residents rising by over 14% between 1991 and 1996, Vancouver was the nation's fastest growing CMA as large population increases were recorded in almost all of the municipalities which make up the CMA. British Columbia also had the fastest growing municipality with more than 5,000 inhabitants: the population of Whistler, just north of Vancouver, jumped almost 61%. In absolute numbers, however, this represents an increase of just 2,713 people, to 7,172.

British Columbia also claimed three of Canada's four most rapidly expanding municipalities with a population of more than 100,000: Surrey gained almost 60,000 inhabitants, rising 24% over five years, while the population of both Abbotsford and Coquitlam rose by 21%.

¹ Average annual increases for the other G-7 nations varied from 0.1% for Italy to 1.0% for the United States between 1990 and 1995.

² The year 1951 is used as a benchmark because it is the first census that included Newfoundland.



Population in census metropolitan areas in 1996 and 1991



	Ra 1996	nk 1991	Population 1996 199	
Toronto	1	1	4,263,757	3,898,933
Montréal	2	2	3,326,510	3,208,970
Vancouver	3	3	1,831,665	1,602,590
Ottawa-Hull	4	4	1,010,498	941,814
Edmonton	5	5	862,597	841,132
Calgary	6	6	821,628	754,033
Québec	7	8	671,889	645,550
Winnipeg	8	7	667,209	660,450
Hamilton	9	9	624,360	599,760
London	10	10	398,616	381,522
Kitchener	11	12	382,940	356,421
St.Catharines- Niagara	12	11	372,406	364,552
Halifax	13	13	332,518	320,501
Victoria	14	14	304,287	287,897
Windsor	15	15	278,685	262,075
Oshawa	16	16	268,773	240,104
Saskatoon	17	17	219,056	210,949
Regina	18	18	193,652	191,692
St. John's	19	19	174,051	171,848
Sudbury	20	21	160,488	157,613
Chicoutimi- Jonquière	21	20	160,454	160,928
Sherbrooke	22	22	147,384	140,718
Trois-Rivières	23	23	139,956	136,303
Saint John	24	24	125,705	125,838
Thunder Bay	25	25	125,562	124,925

Source: 1991 and 1996 Censuses of Population

The Prairie provinces Alberta recorded population growth of 5.9%, just a little above the national average. Natural increase was responsible for about 65% of this growth, and international migration for about 30%. Saskatchewan, the only province to record a loss of population between 1986 and 1991, counted a 0.1% gain, to 990,237 people in 1996. Meanwhile, Manitoba's population increased a moderate 2% between censuses.

Ontario From 1991 to 1996, the population of Ontario increased by 6.6%, or 668,688 people, to 10,753,573. International migration accounted for 60% of this growth and natural increase for the rest.

About half of Ontario's growth occurred in the CMA of Toronto, where international migration accounted for more than half the increase in the population. This immigration contributed to making Toronto the first CMA in Canada with more than four million people – 4,263,757 in 1996. The large population increase in the Toronto CMA was due to small population increases (about 3%) in the central municipalities coupled with strong growth in many of the municipalities on the outskirts. Meanwhile, Mississauga passed the half-million mark, at 544,382 people.

Quebec Growth of 3.5% between 1991 and 1996 pushed the population of Quebec over the seven million mark, as the Census counted 7,138,795 people. Natural increase was responsible for about 65% of this growth, and international migration for most of the rest.

The CMA of Montréal recorded overall growth of 3.7%, even though the two large central municipalities — the City of Montréal (-0.1%) and Montréal-Nord (-4.6%) — experienced population declines. The CMA's growth was fuelled by rapidly increasing population in its smaller constituent municipalities, many of which recorded growth rates of more than 25%.

The Atlantic provinces The population of Prince Edward Island increased by 3.7%, to 134,557 people, the result of natural increase (55%) and interprovincial migration (35%). However, relatively slow growth occurred in New Brunswick (2.0%), and Nova Scotia (1.0%) during the five-year period between the 1991 and 1996 censuses.

Newfoundland Newfoundland recorded its first population decline since it joined Confederation in 1949. The 1996 Census counted 551,792 people in Newfoundland, a 2.9% decline since 1991. The loss was caused by migration to other provinces. At the same time, though, the number of inhabitants in the CMA of St. John's grew 1.3%.

The territories The population of the Yukon increased by 10.7%, to 30,766 inhabitants, between 1991 and 1996, while that of the Northwest Territories rose 11.7%, to 64,402 people. In both territories, natural increase accounted for the growth. In the case of the Northwest Territories, high fertility rates and declining mortality rates among its Aboriginal population contributed substantially to the increase.

The Leisurely Pursuit of Reading

Recent discussion about the literacy of Canadians has centred mainly on the importance of strong literacy skills to meet the demands of new technology, productivity and global competitiveness. This emphasis has focused the debate exclusively on the economic dimension of literacy. But because reading is one of society's main conduits of culture, knowledge and entertainment, strong literacy skills can also enhance a person's quality of life. To provide some measure of this aspect of literacy, this article briefly describes the reading habits of Canadian adults outside the workplace.

Literacy requirements not as high for reading at home Some level of literacy is necessary to complete common everyday household chores and activities such as paying bills, following a recipe and doing home repairs. However, data from the International Adult Literacy Survey (IALS) suggest that these reading tasks are generally not as demanding as those at work. Because people at all but the lowest level of literacy (Level 1) were engaged in everyday reading tasks with similar frequency, IALS researchers concluded that Level 2 ability is adequate for most ordinary literacy tasks outside the workplace.1

Although dealing with bills, catalogues or recipes may demand little in the way of literacy skills, reading "for fun", that is, reading undertaken as a leisure activity, seems to require a higher level of skill. This can be seen in the most common leisure-time literacy activity, reading the newspaper. The majority of Canadians aged 16 and over (87%) read a newspaper at least once a week. However, a newspaper is not a homogeneous entity: it consists of multiple sections designed to appeal to multiple interests. According to the IALS, some sections — advertisements, local news, sports, horoscopes, TV listings and advice columns — are read with almost equal frequency by people at all literacy levels (except Level 1). For example, people at Level 2 are no less likely to read the sports section than people at Level 4/5. But people at the highest literacy level are most likely to read those sections containing more complex information: national and international news, editorials, articles on health and lifestyle, and book or movie reviews.

People at the higher literacy levels were also more likely to report engaging in literacy activities outside the workplace. Nevertheless, many people at Level 1 reported reading a newspaper (70%) or book (30%) at least once a week, and a significant minority write letters (19%) or visit a library (10%) at least once a month. Given these findings, it seems reasonable to assume that people with weak literacy skills do not forego reading altogether — they simply read at a lower level of complexity. This interpretation is supported by data on reading habits from the 1992 General Social Survey.

1 Reading the Future: A Portrait of Literacy in Canada, Statistics Canada/Human Resources Development Canada/National Literacy Secretariat, Catalogue no. 89-551-XPE.

by Susan Crompton

Who reads for fun?² On an average day in 1992, about 4 in 10 Canadians aged 25 and over (39%) spent some of their leisure time reading books, magazines or

newspapers. Adults with higher education levels were more likely to read during their leisure time — about half of university graduates (51%) reported leisure-time

reading compared with only one-third (33%) of Canadians without a high school diploma. Given the strong link between education and literacy skills, this difference in leisure-time reading habits is not surprising. Interestingly, women at almost all educational levels were slightly more likely than men to be readers.

Older Canadians were most likely to take time to read: 56% of those aged 65 and over, compared with 43% of those aged 45 to 64 and only 30% of those aged 25 to 44. This reflects the fact that seniors have more time available for recreational activities — 7.7 hours per day in 1992, compared with 5.4 hours for Canadians under 65.

What do people read? Men and women exhibit distinctly different reading preferences. On an average day in 1992, men were moderately more inclined to read newspapers — 29% versus 23% of women — while women were almost twice as likely to read books — 20% compared with 11% of men. This marked difference between the sexes holds across all educational levels. The types of books favoured by men and women also differ substantially, with 60% of women book-readers reporting that the last book they had read was fiction, compared with only 45% of men.

Different age groups also exhibit different choices. On an average day in 1992, 26% of Canadian adults aged 25 and over read newspapers and 16% read books. But those aged 45 and over were very keen consumers of news, being twice as likely to read a newspaper as a book. In contrast, 25- to 44-year-olds were only moderately more likely to choose a newspaper (17%) than a book (13%) for their leisure-time reading.

How much time do readers spend reading? People who read during their leisure time devote a substantial amount of time to the printed word: readers aged 25 and over are immersed in books, magazines and newspapers for almost an hour-and-a-half a day — an average of 84 minutes. Because seniors have more leisure time, they spend much more time

² Youths aged 15 to 24 were excluded from the analysis of reading habits because they are still students, and their inclusion may skew the two categories for incomplete education, that is "less than high school" and "some postsecondary."

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS BACKGROUNDER

Defining literacy

This article uses data from the 1994 International Adult Literacy Survey (IALS) and the 1992 General Social Survey (GSS) on time use. In the past, literacy measures divided people into two very separate categories — the literate and the illiterate — and usually used highest level of schooling to make the distinction. In contrast, the IALS defined literacy as the ability to understand and use printed and written documents in daily activities to achieve goals, and to develop knowledge and potential. As such, literacy was measured as a continuum of successive levels of skill; this continuum was separated into five levels, with the lowest level being "Level 1" and the highest "Level 5." I

The IALS assessed adult literacy skills in three areas: prose, document and quantitative skills. All three areas concern the information-processing skills of respondents — that is, the ability to locate, integrate, construct and generate information — but the emphasis is somewhat different for each type. *Prose literacy* measures the skills needed to understand texts seen in everyday life, such as newspaper articles or instruction manuals; *document literacy* assesses the skills needed to understand forms such as job applications or transportation schedules, maps, tables and graphs; and *quantitative literacy* describes the numeracy skills needed for such tasks as balancing a chequebook or verifying an invoice. Only prose literacy is of interest in this study.

Data on reading as a leisure activity, presented in the second half of this article, were drawn from the 1992 GSS on time use. The GSS did not collect data on literacy skills, but for purposes of this analysis, level of educational attainment has been used as a proxy for literacy. The table below — presenting the IALS prose literacy level by educational attainment — shows that education is correlated with literacy skills.

¹ For more information, see *Reading the Future: A Portrait of Literacy in Canada*, Statistics Canada/Human Resources Development Canada/National Literacy Secretariat, Catalogue no. 89-551-XPE.

The prose literacy skill of Canadians aged 16 and over is closely linked to their level of education.



L	evel 1	Level 2	Level 3	Level 4/5
		C	/ _o	
Less than Grade 8	89	9		
Completed primary school	59	29	12	
Some secondary school	25	36	32	7
Secondary school graduate	12	31	40	18
Community college graduate	7	23	45	25
University graduate		11	33	56

-- Amount too small to be expressed.

Source: Statistics Canada/Human Resources Development Canada/National Literacy Secretariat, Catalogue no. 89-551-XPE.

reading than younger adults. Readers aged 65 and over spend 109 minutes on this leisure activity, compared with 82 minutes for readers aged 45 to 64 and only 70 minutes for those aged 25 to 44.

The data also show that readers at all educational levels are equally dedicated to their habit. It is true that people with lower levels of education are, presumably because their literacy skills are weaker, less likely to be readers; but those who do read devote just as much time to it as readers with higher levels of education. For example, readers with less than high school spend an average of 87 minutes per day on leisure-time reading, while university graduates dedicate 82 minutes.

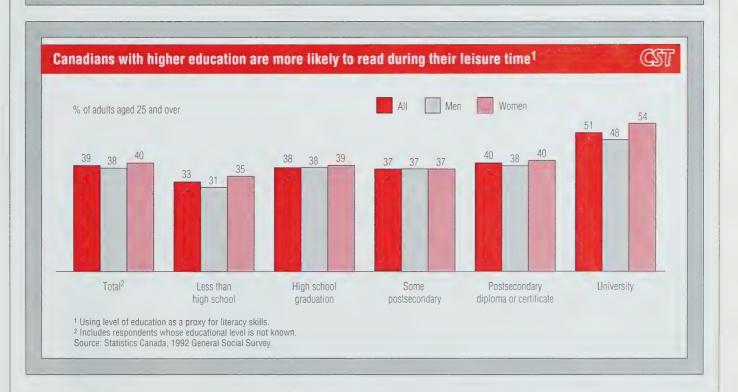
The average reader aged 25 and over devotes the same amount of time each day — about 38 minutes — to newspapers and books, for a total of 76 minutes or 90% of daily reading time; magazines account for about 8 minutes. And although men and women who read spend the same amount of time on this activity, women dedicate the majority of their reading time to books, while men dedicate their time to newspapers.

While women's preference for reading books seems unrelated to their educational level, men's interest does seem to be linked to education. Male readers with no more than high school devote less than one-quarter of their leisure-time reading to books, while those with postsecondary and university education devote well over one-third.

Summary Almost 40% of adult Canadians spend almost an hour and a half of their leisure time each day immersed in the pleasures of the printed word. Yet reading for fun should be considered more than a diverting form of entertainment. The International Adult Literacy Survey found strong evidence that literacy is maintained and strengthened through practice — like a muscle, if it is not used regularly, it atrophies. Reading during their leisure hours probably helps people to retain or improve their literacy skills, especially if

Level 2 literacy skills seem to be adequate for most everyday reading tasks outside the workplace (CST) % of Canadians aged 16 and over who read... at least once a week Reports. Manuals or Bills, invoices, Directions or articles, reference books, instructions for spreadsheets Letters or magazines including Diagrams or or budget medicines, recipes memos or journals catalogues schematics tables or other products Level 1 32 41 24 5 34 37 Level 2 51 67 49 15 52 53 Level 3 53 21 55 69 60 54 Level 4/5 59 78 55 23 69 62

Source: Statistics Canada/Human Resources Development Canada/National Literacy Secretariat, Catalogue no. 89-551-XPE



CANADIAN CST SOCIAL TRENDS BACKGROUNDER

A rough ride for Canada's book and periodical publishers

Canadian periodical publishers faced rough times during the first half of the 1990s. Between 1990-91 and 1994-95, the number of titles published fell by 7% while total annual circulation dropped by 3 million copies. Over the same period, the number of fulltime employees in the industry slipped by 3%, while part-time positions dropped 8% to 1,600. However, revenues averaged about \$860 million per year, and profits showed steady growth, reaching almost 8% of total revenues by 1994-95.

The book publishing industry also underwent a period of decline in the early 1990s. Between 1990-91 and 1993-94, book publishers increased the total number of their titles by 23% but net sales in Canada remained flat, full-time employment dropped 7%, and pre-tax profits dipped to just over 5%. In 1994-95, however, the industry's outlook improved considerably as before-tax profits rose to almost 7%, with 71% of firms reporting profits, suggesting that recessionary pressures accounted for the industry's poor performance in the early years of the decade.

• For more information, see *Canada's Culture, Heritage and Identity: A Statistical Perspective.* Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 87-211-XPB. 1997.

they do not read a great deal on the job. Reading outside the workplace — whether the sports page, a celebrity pro-



Readers spend almost 1.5 hours of their leisure time reading, regardless of their level of educational attainment Minutes per day spent reading by readers Level of education1 Total **Books Newspapers** Magazines 83 29 7 Men aged 25 and over 48 Less than high school 88 21 62 High school graduation 75 49 10 16 Some postsecondary 84 37 40 Postsecondary diploma or certificate 80 33 39 8 University 84 32 46 6 Women aged 25 and over 84 45 30 9 43 34 8 Less than high school 86 High school graduation 81 42 29 9 27 Some postsecondary 88 52 9 Postsecondary diploma or certificate 87 45 33 University 79 46 25 ¹ Using level of education as a proxy for literacy skills. See table in Backgrounder: Defining literacy for distribution of literacy skills by educational attainment. Source: Statistics Canada, 1992 General Social Survey

file, a whodunnit — contributes to Canadians' ability to participate more fully in the social, cultural and economic life of their community.

• For more information, see "Adult Literacy in Canada, the United States and Germany," *Canadian Social Trends*, Winter 1996; and *Reading the Future*,

Statistics Canada/Human Resources Development Canada/National Literacy Secretariat, Catalogue no. 89-551-XPE.

Susan Crompton is Editor-in-Chief of *Canadian Social Trends*.



Technology.

Are Canadians Using It?

Since the dawn of the information era, new information and communications technologies have been changing the way people work, live and interact. Those who avail themselves of these technologies have opportunities for expanded access to and participation in the economic, social and cultural life of Canada. However, not everyone is a techno-wizard. In fact, many Canadians are worried that their skills in using new technology are not adequate1; many feel they are being outpaced by technological developments. Will those who are unable to use even the simplest technological innovations fall farther and farther behind as newer technologies become commonplace? Clearly, existing gaps between the information rich and the information poor could be aggravated.

1 Insight Canada Research Group. Public Attitudes Toward Broadcasting and New Technologies, March 1996.

by Linda Howatson-Leo and Alice Peters

This article explores several areas that suggest that, indeed, some Canadians are at risk of being left out of the technological revolution. Because the access point for many basic services is increasingly provided by machines and not humans, being "left out" could have serious implications. For instance, touch-tone telephones must be used to access information and services of almost any institution — including medical services and governmental services — yet some people still have rotary dial telephones. More sophisticated second-generation banking machines are being introduced and may eventually handle basic financial services such as mortgage and loan applications, RRSP deposits, and insurance. Canada Employment Centres have replaced their bulletin board system with Job Bank machines for job hunting; while these machines are considered "user-friendly," they do require at least minimum proficiency with automated services.

The 1994 General Social Survey (GSS) gathered data on the use of simple everyday automated products and services that have become widely available over the last 15 years, such as automated banking machines (ABMs), video cassette recorders (VCRs), and answering machines. These are neither new nor largely work-related and they do not require a great deal of expertise or knowledge to use. People who do not use these types of automated products and services will be unlikely to use more advanced technology. The GSS data show that most people who are not using even the simplest technological innovations are those who are socially and financially disadvantaged. The elderly and those with low levels of education and income are at the greatest risk of being isolated by the new ways in which services are provided.

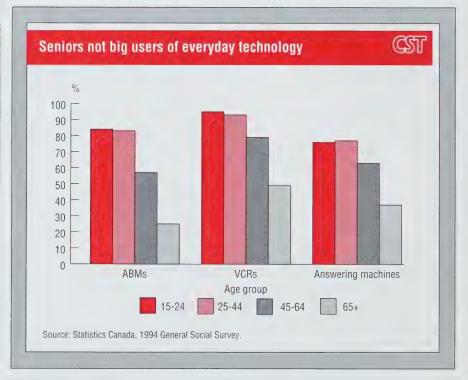
Few seniors use everyday technology

According to the 1994 General Social Survey, only 25% of Canadian seniors (aged 65 and over) had used an ABM in the previous year, compared with 83% of those aged 25 to 44. Approximately half the seniors surveyed had used a VCR in the previous year, compared with 93% of the 25- to 44-year-old respondents. Only 37% of Canadian seniors had used an answering machine, whereas 77% of those aged 25 to 44 had used one.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS BACKGROUNDER



Another issue affecting the use of technology is need. Those who do not need a given technology will probably not bother acquiring it. Seniors, for example, probably do not need the automated products and services discussed in this article as much as younger people simply because they have more time available. People who are at school, at work, or at home raising children typically use ABMs, VCRs and answering machines because these devices help them make more efficient use of their time. On the other hand, seniors may have more choice than working-age Canadians about whether to use automated products and services: they can choose to stand in line at a bank, they can watch a television program when it is broadcast, and they may be at home more often to answer the telephone. Seniors, however, like others, need to be familiar with using automated services to access information and assistance from medical, governmental, and other institutions.

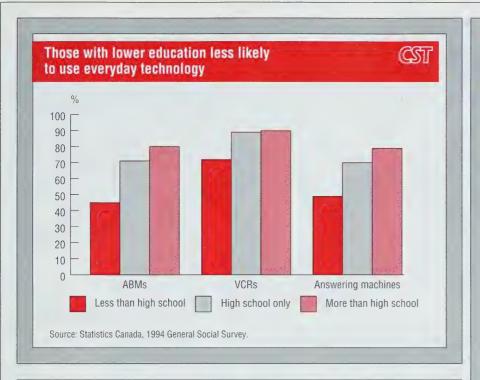


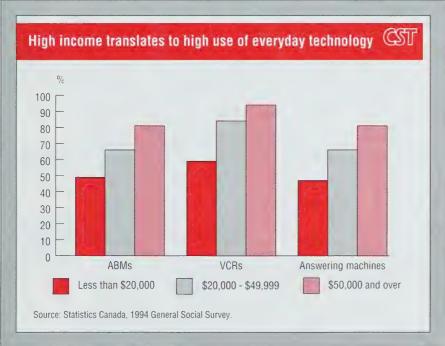
Those with higher levels of education were more apt to use ABMs, VCRs, and answering machines. For example, 80% of Canadians with some postsecondary education had used an ABM in the previous year, compared with 45% of those who had not completed high school. Most of those surveyed had used a VCR in the previous year, regardless of education level, but those with less than high school were the least likely to have used one. Seventy-nine percent of those with postsecondary education had used an answering machine in the previous year,

compared with only 49% of those who had not completed high school.

Low income levels play role too

People in households with higher income levels are more likely to be users of everyday technology. Almost half of those with household income below \$20,000 had used an ABM in the previous year, but usage rates climbed to 81% for those with household income greater than \$50,000. The percentage of people who had used a VCR in the previous year ranged from 59% (those with household





income less than \$20,000), to 94% (those with household income above \$50,000). Only 47% of those with household income below \$20,000 had used an answering machine in the previous year, compared with 81% of those with household income above \$50,000.

According to 1994 GSS data, 81% of urban dwellers had used an ABM in the previous year, compared with 56% of rural residents. Of course, in rural areas, ABMs are less readily available than in

urban centres. About 70% of those living in "the city" had used an answering machine in the previous 12 months, compared with about 60% of those living in "the country." Interestingly, use of VCRs was almost equal for both groups.

Many more computers in the home In the last decade, the proportion of households with computers has tripled to 32% (from 10% in 1986). Income is a key indicator of possession: in 1996, households

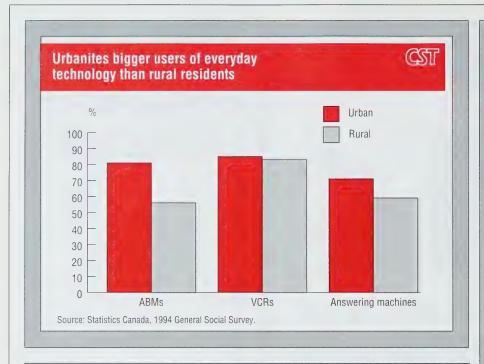
CANADIAN CST SOCIAL TRENDS BACKGROUNDER

"Controlling for" age

There are strong interrelationships between age, education level, and income level. In general, seniors have lower levels of education and income than do younger population groups. Removing the effects of age on education and income levels is therefore important — called "controlling for" age — to have a clear view of the impact of these other two variables on technology use. When the effect of education was examined while controlling for age, it was found that, regardless of age group, those with lower levels of education were less likely to use ABMs, VCRs, and answering machines. Similarly, when the effect of income level on technology use was examined, while controlling for age, it was found that Canadians at lower income levels. regardless of age group, were the least likely to use these technologies.

in the highest quintile (the 20% of households with the highest income) were over four times more likely to have a computer than those in the lowest quintile (57% compared with 14%).

The likelihood of having a computer in the home is also closely related to the presence of children in the family. In 1996, 45% of households with children under 18 years of age had a computer, compared with 18% a decade earlier. Households with children were also more likely to have a modem and to be using the Internet. Increasing use of computers in the classroom and higher levels of computer literacy among the young are two factors contributing to this trend. According to the 1994 GSS, 81% of people aged 15 to 24 were able to use a computer, the highest rate of any age group.



	Est	imated numbe	er of households	('000)
Type of household	Total	With a home computer	With a modem- equipped computer	Use the Internet from home
One person	2,803	416	211	10
Single family without children under 18 years of age	4.271	1.297	662	32
Single family with children	,	,		
under 18 years of age	3,774	1,685	791	355
Multi-family	565	204	107	66

Technology - the next generation In 1996, only about half the households with a modem-equipped computer were using the Internet from home (7% of all homes in Canada). Banks are introducing home banking services via telephone and personal computer, and "smart cards," on which prepaid amounts are stored. Job searching on the Internet has become routine. At the end of 1995 there were 2.6 million cellular telephone subscribers in the country, up 39% from the previous year. The next generation of technology in this area is fast approaching. Soon, new digital cellular phones will be able to send short text messages, faxes and email. As well, new two-way paging services will allow subscribers to receive voice messages directly on their pagers, send and receive faxes, and access information from the Internet.

These innovative electronic "gadgets" may only be available to and used by a very small segment of the population. But as usage becomes more widespread (as it did with cellular phones), more services connected to these technological conveniences will likely be offered. Data from the 1994 GSS concerning use of ABMs, VCRs, and answering machines have shown a widening technology gap is occurring, to the detriment of the

CANADIAN CST SOCIAL TRENDS BACKGROUNDER

Helping Canadians get online

SchoolNet is a joint federal, provincial and territorial initiative, the purpose of which is to link elementary and secondary schools, colleges, universities and libraries across Canada to the Internet. SchoolNet's goal is to have all 23,000 schools and libraries connected by 1998.

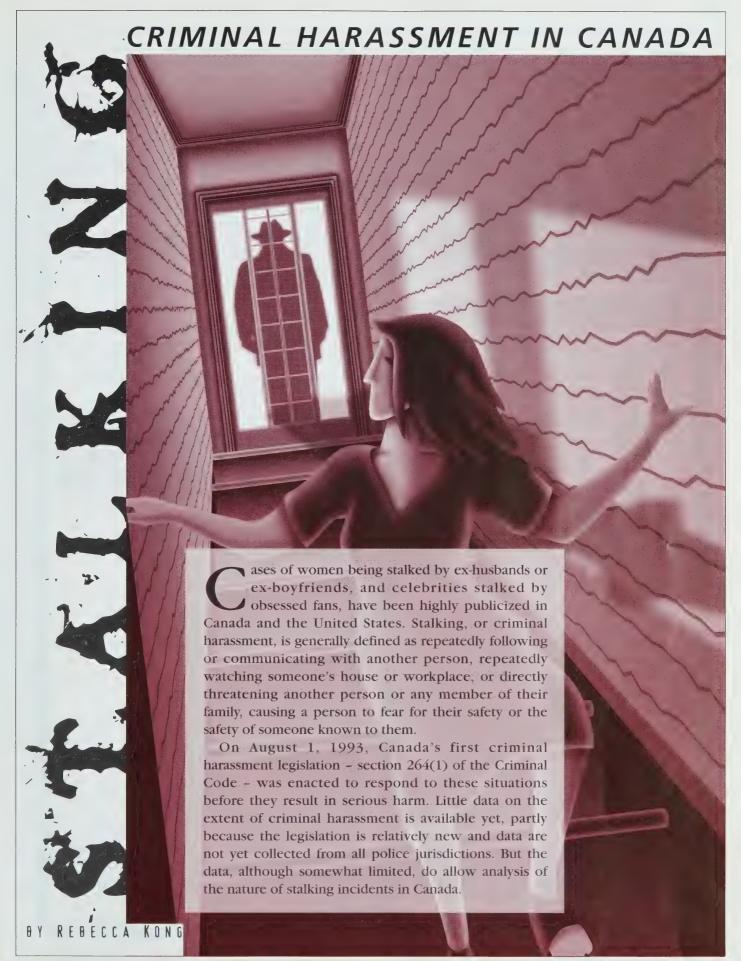
Community ACCESS, which is a joint federal, provincial and territorial initiative managed by Industry Canada, helps rural and remote communities provide affordable public access to the information highway.² The mandate of the project is to assist communities in establishing and operating Internet access sites in low cost public locations, such as schools and public libraries.

- 1 See Industry Canada's SchoolNet: http://www.schoolnet.ca and Computers for Schools Program: http://info.ic.gc.ca/icdata/cfs/index.html
- ² See Industry Canada's Community Access Program: http://cnet.unb.ca/cap

elderly and those with low levels of education and income. These groups could become further disadvantaged as such fundamental tasks as job hunting and banking increasingly require some level of competence in using technology. To lessen the gap between the information rich and the information poor, wider access to the benefits of new technology is needed, so that "basic and essential" information and services are available to all Canadians.

Linda Howatson-Leo and **Alice Peters** are analysts with Housing, Family and Social Statistics Division, Statistics Canada.

CST



Relationship of accused to victim is key Literature on the subject suggests that one of the defining characteristics of criminal harassment is the relationship of the accused to the victim. There are various types of accused-victim relationships, meaning that the motives for this crime may vary. For example, in a marital or dating relationship, perpetrators may be motivated by their refusal to believe that the relationship has ended. In other relationships, like friendships or acquaintanceships, perpetrators may believe that their victims are equally in love with them, or that the victims might return their affections if they would only

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS BACKGROUNDER

CLI

The legislation

Bill C-126, first read in the House of Commons in April 1993, was introduced in response to several highly publicized murders of women who had been killed by their estranged partners. Following on the heels of legislative reforms in the United States (where anti-stalking laws were first enacted in 1990), the Bill contains a number of reforms intended to better address family violence and violence against women.

The Bill also sought to provide better protection to victims of criminal harassment. Before the legislation was enacted, stalkers could be charged with such offences as uttering threats, intimidation, trespassing, indecent or harassing phone calls, or assault by threatening. Alternatively, persons fearing injury to themselves or their families, or damage to their property, could seek a "peace bond" or "no contact order" against the accused. However, these methods were criticized as inadequate since the accused had to have either threatened or physically harmed the victim before the authorities could take any action. Moreover, non-violent yet harassing behaviour, such as repeatedly sending gifts and letters and constantly following or watching another person, could rarely be handled by the legal tools available at the time.

Section 264 of the Criminal Code attempts to remedy these inadequacies by specifically addressing harassing behaviour and imposing more serious penalties. Under Section 264, harassment is now viewed as a hybrid offence, that is the Crown may prosecute the offence as either a summary or an indictable offence. As a summary offence, criminal harassment carries a maximum penalty of six months imprisonment and/or a fine not exceeding \$2,000; as an indictable offence, it carries a maximum penalty of imprisonment not exceeding five years.

get to know the perpetrator better. The difference between "courting" and "stalking" behaviour is that stalking makes people afraid for themselves or for their friends and family.

Work-related criminal harassment occurs when a victim is harassed by a co-worker, unsatisfied client, former employee or person protesting the type of work being carried out by the victim or his/her business (e.g., abortion clinic, logging company). Criminal harassment may also occur between disputing neighbours.

Most female victims stalked by former partner According to police statistics, victims of criminal harassment are usually women who are stalked by men.¹ Data from the Revised Uniform Crime Reporting (UCR) Survey show that 80% of almost 7,500 victims during 1994-95 were female and that 88% of about 5,400 persons accused of criminal harassment were male. A large proportion of these women (57%) were stalked by an ex-husband or (ex-)boyfriend.

Research on wife assault suggests that it is not uncommon for an abusive husband or partner to continue to pursue a woman after the relationship has ended. The 1993 Violence Against

¹ Justice Canada, A Review of section 264 of the Criminal Code (Criminal harassment) (draft report) 1996.

Most victims of criminal harassment were women, the majority of whom were stalked by a former partner¹

CI

Accused' relations to victim	hip	Total victims	Female victims	Male victims
Total	(no.)	5,023	4,046	977
	(%)	100	100	100
I be a la a sa al		4.5		
Husband		1.5	1.9	
Ex-husba	ınd	31.1	38.7	
Wife		0.1		0.3
Ex-wife		1.8		9.0
(Ex-)boyf	friend	13.6	16.9	
(Ex-)girlf	riend	0.8		3.9
Other fan	nily	4.7	3.7	8.6
Casual ac	equaintance	27.9	23.5	46.1
Work rela	ationship	4.9	3.4	11.3
Stranger		8.1	7.3	11.5
Other		1.5	0.6	5.5
Relations	hip unknown	4.1	4.1	3.9

⁻⁻ Data not applicable.

Totals may not add due to rounding.

¹ Includes only incidents where an accused was identified. Based on a non-random sample of 130 police agencies, accounting for 43% of the national volume of crime. These data are not nationally representative. Source: Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics. Revised Uniform Crime Reporting Survey, 1994 and 1995.

Women Survey reported that, for about 20% of women who had been in abusive relationships, the violence continued during or after the couple separated; furthermore, in 35% of these cases, the violence actually became more severe at the time of separation. Homicide statistics tell the same story, showing that women are generally at greater risk of being killed by their spouse after separation: between 1974 and 1992, women were six times more

likely to be murdered by their husband after leaving him than when living with him.

Although the largest proportion of female victims were criminally harassed by a current or former partner, many were also stalked by casual acquaintances (24%), strangers (7%), other family members (4%) and persons known through work relationships (3%).

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS BACKGROUNDER



Crime Reporting Survey and the Adult Criminal Court Survey

The Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics (CCJS), in cooperation with the policing community, collects detailed information on police-reported criminal incidents through the Revised Uniform Crime Reporting (UCR) Survey. In 1995, 130 police agencies, which accounted for 43% of criminal incidents reported in Canada, responded to the Revised UCR Survey. However, because the participating police forces represent a non-random sample, the incidents reported are not nationally representative; in fact, over 90% of criminal harassment reports in the sample were from Quebec and Ontario. Furthermore, the majority of incidents examined in this article were reported by the largest police departments — Toronto and Montreal accounted for 30% and 25%, respectively, of stalking incidents reported.

This article draws on data from the Revised UCR Survey for the calendar years 1994 and 1995 combined, the most recent years for which criminal harassment statistics are available. Since the analysis focuses on the accused-victim relationship, meaning that the relationship of the accused to the victim must be clearly known, incidents with no victim and/or with more than one accused were dropped from the sample. The article is therefore based on records of 4,768 incidents of criminal harassment involving 5,023 victims and 4,768 accused. And although stalking can involve more serious violations of the Criminal Code, harassment was the most serious offence in 96% of the incidents examined in this study.

The analysis of court cases is based on data from the seven jurisdictions that reported to the Adult Criminal Court Survey (ACCS) in 1994: Newfoundland, Prince Edward Island, Nova Scotia, Quebec, Saskatchewan, the Yukon and Northwest Territories. The ACCS provides data on federal and provincial/territorial statutes charges and municipal by-law infractions heard in adult criminal courts in Canada. This article uses the detailed information on completed charges, appearances and cases for federal statute offences. Data were collected for 972 cases involving a total of 1,110 charges of criminal harassment (a number of cases might include multiple charges of

harassment). The data reported account for only 34% of the total provincial court caseload, and the vast majority (79%) of charges in the sample originated from Quebec. Therefore, the findings should be interpreted with some caution.

Definitions of the accused-victim relationship

Husband/wife: at the time of the incident, the accused was the victim's spouse through marriage or common-law relationship.

Ex-husband/ex-wife: at the time of the incident, the accused was separated or divorced from the victim.

(Ex)-boyfriend/(ex)-girlfriend: at the time of the incident, the relationship between the accused and the victim was long-term and/or that of a close friend or intimate (excludes same-sex relationships or friendships).

Casual acquaintance: at the time of the incident, a social relationship existed that was neither long-term nor close, and includes persons known only by sight such as neighbours.

Work relationship: at the time of the incident, the work-place or business was the primary source of contact between victim and accused; the category includes coworkers, business partners, employee-customer, employee-employer, and non-commercial relationships such as student-teacher or physician-patient.

Other family: the victim and accused are related but not through marriage; for example, parents, children, other immediate family members (brothers, sisters) or extended family members.

Stranger: the victim does not know the accused.

Other: relationships not included in the previous categories, such as same-sex partners (current or former) and long-term and/or close friends of the same sex (current or former).

If an incident involves two or more victims, the analysis will result in a multiple counting. For example, if a woman and her child are stalked by the woman's exhusband, the incident and the accused will be examined under two categories: "ex-husband" and "other family." The Revised UCR Survey reported a total of 213 incidents with multiple victims and one accused. In contrast, male victims of stalkers were most likely to be harassed by a casual acquaintance (46%); few were stalked by an ex-spouse (9%) or (ex-)girlfriend (4%). Over one in ten (11%) male victims were stalked by persons with whom they had a work relationship.

Few incidents result in injury According to data filed in police reports, few victims (5%) actually experienced physical injury and less than half a percent of stalking incidents involved a homicide or attempted murder.² But the general absence of physical harm does not mean that harm is not done. Police may not have known that a homicide victim had previously been stalked if the victim had never reported the harassment. And research suggests that the threat of harm alone can affect the victim's emotional and physical well-being.³

This reaction is not surprising, given the invasive nature of harassment and that stalkers usually follow, watch or make contact at the victim's home or place of work. Police data show that the majority of incidents occurred at the victim's home. Although workplace locations cannot be identified from police-reported data, victims being criminally harassed by someone known through work were more likely to be stalked at a corporate/commercial place or a public institution.

Victims' reactions to criminal harassment may also depend on the involvement of other offences. In fact, one in four stalking incidents was accompanied by other offences such as uttering threats, assaults, harassing phone calls, mischief, breach of probation, violating bail and breaking and entering.

Victims do not want charges laid in one in five incidents⁴

In harassment cases where the stalker was identified, the majority of the accused (70%) were charged; however, in 19% of incidents, charges were not laid because the victim was reluctant to pursue the matter. Victims involved in work relationships with their stalkers were most hesitant to lay charges (32%) as were men harassed by their ex-wives (27%). A minority of women stalked by an ex-husband or (ex-)boyfriend also preferred not to lay charges (17% and 12%, respectively), after reporting the incident to police.

A high proportion of charges are withdrawn In 1994, provincial courts in seven jurisdictions participated in the Adult Criminal Court Survey (ACCS). Data show that 23% of the harass-

² This finding is similar to that of Justice Canada's analysis of a sample of cases, wherein 91% of victims suffered no physical injury; and a study conducted in British Columbia found that even when victims did experience physical violence, "none suffered grievous bodily harm." Attorney General, British Columbia, 1995. The Report of the Criminal Harassment Unit Part ii: The Nature and Extent of Criminal Harassment in British Columbia, pp. 22-23.

³ Kathleen G. McAnaney, Laura A. Curliss and C. Elizabeth Abeyta-Price. "From Imprudence to Crime: Anti-Stalking Laws" (1993) 68 The Notre Dame Law Review, page 851; and Harvey Wallace and Joy Silverman, "Stalking and Post Traumatic Stress Syndrome" (1996) LXIX The Police Journal, page 25.

⁴ Excludes the one-quarter of incidents in which the stalker was not identified.

Accused's relationship to victim	Number ²	Total (%)	Resi- dence	Commercial/ corporate place	Street/ public transit	Public insti- tution	Parking lot	School	Open area
					%				
Total	5,023	100	69	11	10	3	2	3	1
Husband	75	100	91	3	1	1		1	
Ex-husband	1,574	100	77	7	8	1	2	1	1
Wife	3	100							
Ex-wife	88	100	78	10	3	2	1		2
(Ex-)boyfriend	684	100	75	11	7	1	1	2	
(Ex-)girlfriend	38	100	87	5	3				
Other family	234	100	82	6	8	1	2		-
Casual acquaintance	1,402	100	64	11	13	3	2	4	1
Work relationship	246	100	36	39	5	9	1	7	
Stranger	408	100	45	16	22	7	2	3	3
Other	77	100	75	10	3	1	1	3	-
Relationship unki	nown 204	100	65	13	9	4	1	3	

⁻⁻ Amount too small to be expressed.

Totals may not add due to rounding.

Includes only incidents where an accused was identified. Based on a non-random sample of 130 police agencies, accounting for 43% of the national volume of crime. These data are not nationally representative.

² Includes unknown location

Source: Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics, Revised Uniform Crime Reporting Survey, 1994 and 1995.

An accused stalker is charged in over two-thirds of criminal harassment cases reported to police¹



Type of clearance by police ²

			Cleared other	wise
Accused's relationship to victim	Γotal	Cleared by charge	Victim reluctant to pursue laying charges	Other ³
			%	
Total	100	70	19	11
Husband	100	83	9	8
Ex-husband	100	75	17	9
Wife	100			
Ex-wife	100	56	27	17
(Ex-)boyfriend	100	82	12	5
(Ex-)girlfriend	100	68	24	8
Other family Casual	100	73	15	12
acquaintance	100	64	23	13
Work relationship	100	57	32	12
Stranger	100	64	20	15
Other	100	65	17	18
Relationship unknown	100	70	24	6

⁻⁻ Amount too small to be expressed.

addition to a criminal harassment charge were more likely to receive a prison sentence (56%) than those in which the most serious offence was criminal harassment (19%).

Summary Legislators have responded to society's intolerance for stalking behaviour by naming it a criminal offence. However, as with any crime, legislation alone cannot prevent its occurrence. While stalking may not be new behaviour, it is "new" to the legal system. Therefore, increased knowledge of the nature and extent of criminal harassment is essential in helping agencies better understand and respond to it.

To date, statistics reported by a non-representative sample of police departments show that the majority of reported cases involve female victims, most of whom are stalked by previous partners. Yet, current statistics give only partial insight into the effect of stalking on its victims. Police and court data also show that a large number of cases are being dropped due to the victim's reluctance to take part in laying charges. As the amount of data available from police and courts increases, and as research on the issue builds, more information will be available to help deepen our understanding of criminal harassment and improve the responses of the justice system.

• For more information, see *Juristat*, Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 85-002-XPE, Vol. 16, no. 12. Also "Wife Assault in Canada," *Canadian Social Trends*, Autumn 1994.

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ment cases originally filed in provincial court were moved to a superior court. This may indicate that these cases were of a more serious nature than harassment alone; for example, 59% of criminal harassment cases involving sexual assault, and 31% of those involving assault, were transferred to superior court. The outcome of these transferred cases is unknown.

However, the data show that the outcomes of criminal harassment cases remaining in provincial court are rather different than those for minor assault, which is a similar type of charge. Although the accused in 36% of harassment cases were found guilty (including conditional and absolute discharges and guilty pleas), a full 39% of harassment cases were dropped (including withdrawn, dismissed and stayed).⁵ By contrast, 57% of minor assault charges resulted in a conviction and only 27% were dropped.

While Bill C-126 clearly states that criminal harassment is a serious crime, it appears that relatively few cases are prosecuted as an indictable offence. ACCS data from the seven reporting jurisdictions show that 60% of stalkers found guilty were sentenced to probation (two-thirds for at least one year), while another 33% of convicted stalkers received a prison term (most less than six months). Cases involving a more serious violent offence in

Totals may not add due to rounding.

¹ Includes only incidents where an accused was identified. Based on a non-random sample of 130 police agencies, accounting for 43% of the national volume of crime. These data are not nationally representative.

Clearance rate is 100% because an accused was identified in all incidents.
 Includes reasons beyond the department's control, departmental discretion and other.

Source: Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics, Revised Uniform Crime Reporting Survey, 1994 and 1995.

Justice Canada's examination of a sample of criminal harassment cases found that the victim's unwillingness to participate in the court process or desire to drop charges influenced the Crown's decision whether or not to continue the prosecution.



EDUCATORS' NOTEBOOK

Suggestions for using Canadian Social Trends in the classroom

Lesson plans for "Attitudes Toward Women, Work and Family" and "Changes in Women's Work Continuity"

Objectives

- → To appreciate how attitudes toward work and family differ.
- ☐ To understand how women's role in the labour force has changed.
- To appreciate how attitudes toward work and family influence behaviour.
- → To work independently and cooperatively in groups.

Activity 1

- 1. Conduct a small survey of student attitudes toward women, work and family. Ask the students if they agree or disagree with each of the following statements:
 - a) having a job is the best way for a woman to be an independent person;
 - b) a preschool child is likely to suffer if both parents are employed;
 - c) a job is all right, but what most women want is a home and children.

Record the number of agree and disagree responses for male and female students separately for each statement.

- 2. Have the students read "Attitudes Toward Women, Work and Family."
- 3. Compare the class response to the statements in step one to those in the article.
- 4. Discuss how attitudes toward women, work and family differ between young and old people and between men and women.

Activity 2

- 1. Read "Changes in Women's Work Continuity."
- 2. Discuss what impact women's role as caregiver within the family has upon women's participation in the labour force and how interruptions in women's paid work have changed over time. Have the teacher summarize the points.
- 3. Divide the class into groups of male and groups of female students. Have the female groups discuss the role they foresee for themselves at work and within the family. Have the male groups discuss what role they foresee for their spouse in the family and at work if they were to marry.
- **4.** Have each group present the roles they foresee for women in the family and at work, while the teacher summarizes the points.
- 5. Discuss what implications these roles have on the long-term well-being of women.

Using other resources

- ☐ Visit Statistics Canada's internet site at http://www.statcan.ca to find women's labour force participation by age for several countries. Look under "Canadian Dimensions The People."
- Read about how women's participation in the labour force has changed in the early 1990s in Perspectives on Labour and Income, Autumn 1995, Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 75-001-XPE.
- Use the E-STAT CD-ROM from Statistics Canada to find data on labour force participation rates for women. Search in the CANSIM time series under the Topic "Employment and Unemployment" to find this information.



Share your ideas!

Do you have lessons using **CST** that you would like to share? Send your ideas or comments to Joel Yan, Dissemination Division, Statistics Canada, Ottawa, K1A 0T6. FAX (613) 951-4513 or Internet E-mail: yanjoel@statcan.ca.



EDUCATORS – You may photocopy Educators' Notebook and the articles "Changes in women's work continuity" and "Attitudes Toward Women, Work and Family" for use in your classroom.

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	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996
POPULATION								
	07 070 0	07 700 0	00 100 1	00 540 0	28.947.0	00 055 C B	00 C1E 0 P	00.040.0
Canada, July 1 (000s)	27,379.3	27,790.6	28,120.1	28,542.2		29,255.6 R	29,615.3 R	
Annual growth (%)	1.8	1.5	1.2	1.5	1.4	1.1 R	1.2	1.2
Immigration ¹	178,152	202,979	219,250	241,810	265,405	234,457 F	215,470 R	208,791
Emigration ¹	40,395	39,760	43,692	45,633	43,993	44,807	45,949	47,230
FAMILY								
Birth rate (per 1,000)	15.0	15.3	14.3	14.0	13.4	13.2	12.9	12.5
Marriage rate (per 1,000)	7.0	6.8	6.1	5.8	5.5	5.5	5.4	5.3
Divorce rate (per 1,000)	3.0	2.8	2.7	2.8	2.7	2.7	2.6	*
Families experiencing unemployment (000s)	808	879	1,096	1,184	1,198	1,130	1,044	1,079
LABOUR FORCE								
Total employment (000s)	13,086	13,165	12,916	12,842	13,015	13,292	13,506	13,676
– goods sector (000s)	3,928	3,809	3,582	3,457	3,448	3,545	3,653	3,681
– service sector (000s)	9,158	9,356	9,334	9,385	9,567	9,746	9,852	9,995
Total unemployment (000s)	1,065	1,164	1,492	1,640	1,649	1,541	1,422	1,469
Unemployment rate (%)	7.5	8.1	10.4	11.3	11.2	10.4	9.5	9.7
Part-time employment (%)	16.6	17.0	18.1	18.5	19.1	18.8	18.6	18.9
Women's participation rate (%)	58.3	58.7	58.5	58.0	57.9	57.6	57.4	57.6
Unionization rate – % of paid workers	34.1	34.7	35.1	34.9	34.3	_	-	_
INCOME								
Median family income	43,995	45,618	46,389	47,199	46,717	48,091	48,079	A S
% of families with low income (1992 Base)	11.1	12.3	13.0	13.5	14.6	13.5	14.2	20
Women's full-time earnings as a % of men's	66.0	67.7	69.6	71.9	72.2	69.8	73.1	*
EDUCATION								
Elementary and secondary enrolment (000s)	5,075.3	5,141.0	5,218.2	5,284.2	5,347.4 P	5,402.4 P	5,465.5 E	5511.0
Full-time postsecondary enrolment (000s)	831.8	856.6	903.1	931.0	951.1 P	964.7 E	961.2 E	961.2
Doctoral degrees awarded	2,573	2,673	2,947	3,136	3,356	3,552	3,621 E	3,532
Government expenditure on education – as a % of GDF		5.8	6.3	6.4	6.2	5.9	5.7	*
HEALTH								
% of deaths due to cardiovascular disease - men	39.1	37.3	37.1	37.1	37.0	36.3	36.0	*
	42.6	41.2	41.0	40.7	40.2	39.7 R	39.3	
- Women	27.2			28.4 R	27.9	28.3	30.3	29.3
% of deaths due to cancer – men		27.8	28.1					
— women	26.4	26.8	27.0	27.3	26.9	27.0	27.3	27.9
Government expenditure on health – as a % of GDP	5.9	6.2	6.7	6.8	6.7	6.2	6.1	36
JUSTICE			4.050	4.077.0	4.070	1 000 B	205	
Crime rates (per 100,000) – violent	908	970	1,056	1,077 R	1,072	1,038 R	995	*
– property		5,593	6,141	5,868 R	5,524 R	5,212 R	5,235 R	*
– homicid	e 2.4	2.4	2.7	2.6	2.2	2.0	2.0	*
GOVERNMENT								
Expenditures on social programmes ² (1995 \$000,000)) 175,372.4 ^R	183,505.7 R	190,745.5 R	207,245.8 R	214,317.3 R	215,567.4	208,494.6	3 ¹
– as a % of total expenditures	56.1 R	56.0 R	56.8 R	58.5 R	60.0 R	60.1	58.3	2/4
– as a % of GDP	23.0 R	24.5 R	26.7 R	28.8 R	29.4 R	28.2	26.9	*
UI beneficiaries (000s)	3,025.2	3,261.0	3,663.0	3,658.0	3,415.5	3,086.2	2,910.0	*
OAS and OAS/GIS beneficiaries ^m (000s)	2,919.4	3,005.8	3,098.5	3,180.5	3,264.1	3,340.8	3,420.0	3,500.2
Canada Assistance Plan beneficiaries ^m (000s)	1,856.1	1,930.1	2,282.2	2,723.0	2,975.0	3,100.2	3,070.9	*
ECONOMIC INDICATORS								
GDP (1986 \$) – annual % change	+2.4	-0.2	-1.8	+0.8	+2.2	+4.1	+2.3	+1.5
Annual inflation rate (%)	5.0	4.8	5.6	1.5	1.8	0.2	2.1	1.6
Urban housing starts	183,323	150,620	130,094	140,126	129,988	127,346	89,526	101,804

²Includes Protection of Persons and Property; Health; Social Services; Education; Recreation and Culture.

¹For year ending June 30.

CANADIAN

SOCIAL TRENDS KEPING TRACK

Women's family incomes drop by almost one-quarter after separation



In the first year following a marital separation, women's family income falls by 23% while men's rises by 10% (income is adjusted for number of family mem-

bers). These changes vary according to family type. For example, income fell by 31% for women who became lone parents and by 32% for women who became single, but increased by 8% for women who formed a new relationship. Similarly, the family income of men with children changed only slightly (+1%), but the income of single men (+14%) and men in new relationships (+11%) was significantly higher after separation. Two factors help to explain this disparity in family income: men generally earn more than women, so that upon separation women experience a major loss of financial support; second, most of the time, separated women have custody of the children.

Family Income After Separation,

Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 13-588-MPB, no. 5

Majority of women over 40 have mammograms



The annual number of mammograms performed in Canada has increased significantly in the last decade. Canadian women had 1.4 million mammograms in 1994, compared

with 250,000 in 1985. The increase is due to the fact that mammograms are now prescribed for women aged 50 to 69 to screen for early breast cancer. By 1994-95, 64% of women aged 40 and over had had at least one mammogram, including 74% of women in their fifties and 71% of women in their sixties.

Health Reports, Vol. 8, no. 3

Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 82-003-XPB

Fertility higher in marriages than common-law unions



The total fertility rate in Canada was 1.64 children per woman of child-bearing age. But there was a notable difference in fertility rates for married women compared with

women in common-law unions. Women who were married throughout their reproductive life had twice as many children (2.87) as women in a common-law relationship (1.44). Since Quebec has a much higher proportion of common-law unions, it stands out with a higher fertility rate for common-law unions —1.58 children — than the other provinces — 1.30 children.

Report on the Demographic Situation in Canada, 1996 Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 91-209-XPE

Radio still has lots of fans



Canadians spent an average 21 hours a week listening to the radio in autumn 1995, about 30 minutes less than they had four years earlier. Since 1986, when Statistics Canada first

began to publish provincial data, people in Quebec have proved to be the most avid radio listeners in the country. And 1995 was no different,

as they were tuned into the radio for 22 hours a week, while residents of British Columbia spent the least amount of time, at 18.6 hours. Women are bigger fans than men, averaging 22.2 hours of listening a week, compared with 21.8 hours for men.

Culture Statistics Program

Statistics Canada, Culture,

Tourism and Centre for Education Statistics

"Open skies" pact fuels high growth in air travel



The volume of air travellers between Canada and the United States has increased greatly since the "Open Skies" agreement was signed in February 1995. Between 1995 and 1996,

the number of cross-border trips by plane lasting one or more nights rose by 18% for Canadians and by almost 12% for Americans. Vancouver Airport has benefitted the most from the "Open Skies" agreement, recording a 37% increase from 1994 to 1996 in the number of air travellers (Canadian and foreign) entering or re-entering Canada from the United States. The Toronto and Montreal airports recorded increases of 23% and 11%, respectively.

International travel: advance information Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 66-001-PPB

Family's socioeconomic status affects children's educational performance



Canadian children aged 4 to 11 from families with low socioeconomic status are more likely to have difficulty in school. They are three times more likely than children in the

highest status families to be in some type of remedial education program, while children from high status families are twice as likely to be in programs for gifted children. However, results of intervention programs in some school districts suggest that appropriate support and assistance to disadvantaged children can help them improve their educational performance; further research on this subject will be possible with data from future cycles of the survey.

National Longitudinal Survey of Children and Youth: School component 1994-95,

Statistics Canada, Centre for Education Statistics

Canadians and the sun



Although Canadians express concern about getting sunburn or skin cancer as a result of overexposure to the sun, the majority do not consistently adopt protective measures. The

most common preventive measure — reported by over half of Canadians aged 15 and over — is wearing sunglasses. However, less than half always or usually adopt other measures such as applying sun screen, wearing protective clothing, covering their head or seeking shade. Not surprisingly, one in five Canadians reported getting sunburned at least three times during the summer of 1996.

Sun Exposure Survey

Statistics Canada, Special Surveys Division

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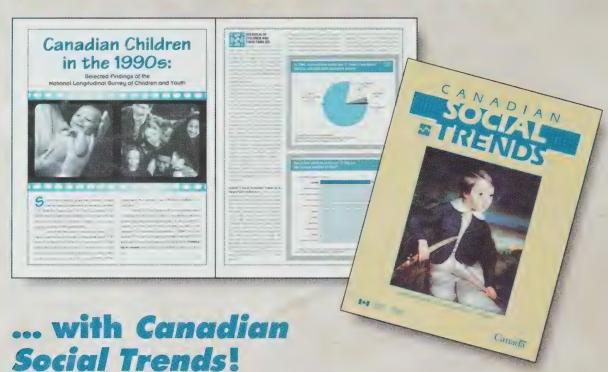
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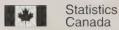
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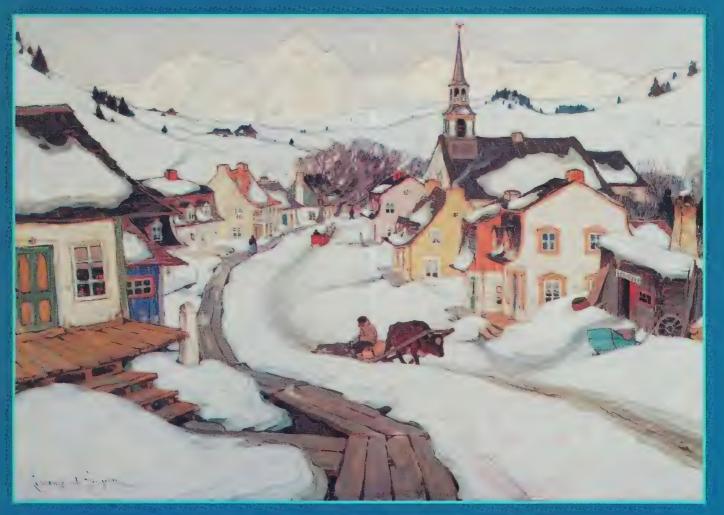
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ON OUR COVER:

"Village in the Laurentian Mountains" (1924) oil on canvas, 89.2×130.7 cm. Collection: National Gallery of Canada, Ottawa.

About the artist:

Clarence A. GAGNON was born in Montreal, Quebec in 1881. He first studied drawing and painting under William Brymner at the Art Association of

Montreal. Between 1903 and 1909 he studied in Paris, and from 1911 to 1936, he divided his time between Montreal, Paris and Baie St. Paul. The Art Club of Montreal honoured Gagnon in 1936, and in 1938 his 54 original paintings for Maria Chapdelaine were exhibted at the Art Association of Montreal and in the National Gallery of Canada. In 1938, he was made an honorary L.L.D. by the University of Montreal. Gagnon died in Montreal in 1942 at the age of 61.

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Canada's car

by Kelly Cranswick

e live in a society in which social support networks are increasingly being put to the test. The number of seniors has more than doubled in the past 25 years, and most of them are living longer; for example, women born in 1941 can expect to live four years longer than those born in 1921. This growing population of older Canadians with greater life expectancy has increased the caregiving responsibilities of families, especially offspring. Recent changes in the health care system and social services have put further pressure on the caregiving capabilities of families; for instance, shorter hospital stays and greater use of outpatient treatment have increased the need for care at home. These new demands occur at a time when the majority of women — traditionally the primary caregivers — now participate in the labour force. As such, Canadians face the burden of multiple responsibilities to employers, their own spouse and children, and to parents, relatives or friends requiring care.

Many people provide care without any sense of obligation, while others may view it as a duty, as a sacrifice, or as a necessity if formal structures are no longer available. Regardless of the reasons for becoming a caregiver, the responsibility entails a significant commitment and can be intense and time-consuming. Caregiving tasks fall into two categories: "instrumental activities," such as preparing meals, doing housework, doing yard work or provid-



ing transportation; and "personal care" activities, such as bathing, dressing or toileting. Meeting these demands often necessitates adjustments to the life of the caregiver, and may affect the time the caregiver spends with family and friends, personal time, or the priority given to paid employment and household responsibilities. This article looks at the unpaid, informal care being provided by Canadians to people with

long-term health problems — that is, any condition or physical limitation lasting, or expected to last, more than six months. It focuses on who these caregivers are, and how well they are coping.

¹ A second type of care covered by the 1996 GSS is *caring about*. Caring about involves a psychological connection between people; for example, by providing emotional support, keeping someone's spirits up or giving reassurance and encouragement. Caring about can also include checking up on someone, either by visiting or telephoning, to ensure he or she is all right.

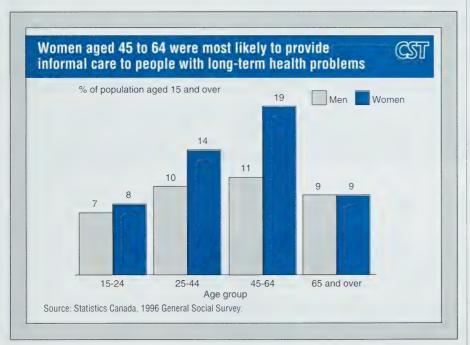
CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS BACKGROUNDER



Defining care with the General Social Survey

This article uses data from the 1996 General Social Survey (GSS) on social and community support. Between February and December 1996, the survey interviewed almost 13,000 Canadians aged 15 and over living in private dwellings in the ten provinces. Data on caregiving refers to help provided by respondents in the 12 months preceding the survey interview. The GSS collected data on both formal and informal caregiving. Informal care is defined as the performance of tasks by family and friends, without pay, that helps maintain or enhance people's independence; since 86% of caregivers were providing informal care, it is the focus of this article.

Please note that this analysis of caregiving relationships does not take into account the amount of time spent providing care. Research using data collected by the 1996 GSS on the actual time devoted to caregiving will provide further insights into caregiving.



Who are the caregivers? While much caregiving is still done by women, many men also provide help to people with long-term health problems — 10% of men compared with 14% of women. There is a concentration of caregivers in the 45 to 64 age group — 19% of women and 11% of men — which is to be expected, since the data indicate that many people of this age group were providing help to elderly parents. However, it should also be noted that a considerable proportion of seniors aged 65 and over provided care to their spouses, friends and neighbours.

Having paid work outside the home did not prevent people from providing support when the need was there, as 15% of employed women and 10% of employed men were caregivers. Among unemployed people, 16% of women and 12% of men combined their job search activities with caregiving duties. About 15% of women who worked in the home were also caregivers.

Having a family seemed to have little impact on caregiving. Sixteen percent of women living with their spouse and children were caregivers, as were 14% of

those living with their spouse only. A somewhat smaller proportion of women living with their children only (12%) provided care to someone with a long-term health problem. Roughly one in ten men were caregivers, regardless of their living arrangements.

So who are the caregivers? No one specific "type" of person seems more likely than another to become one. It appears that people provide care when their help is required, regardless of the responsibilities they already shoulder. Most caregivers already have many obligations, with the majority being married with children and having work commitments outside the home.

Who are they helping? People caring for others with long-term health problems or physical limitations can be faced with widely differing sets of tasks depending on the situation. For example, the help needed by an elderly parent may be quite different than that required by a child with a developmental disability or by a terminally ill friend or relative. A caregiver may be called on to assist with instrumental tasks, such as cooking or cleaning, or with personal care, such as bathing or dressing.²

Almost half of assistance with instrumental activities was given to parents and parents-in-law (47%). About 24% of care involved help to friends,³ 13% to members of the extended family and 5% to spouses. Close to two-thirds of the help with personal care was given to parents (46%) and spouses (16%); friends (13%) and children (5%) received less than one-fifth of personal care. This finding is not surprising due to the intimate nature of these tasks, and supports the view that family becomes more important than friends when help is needed for such personal activities as dressing and using the washroom.⁴, ⁵

^{2 &}quot;Instrumental activities" is defined as help with at least one of the following activities: childcare; meal preparation and clean-up; house cleaning, laundry and sewing; house maintenance and outside work; shopping for groceries and other necessities; providing transportation; banking and bill-paying.

^{3 &}quot;Friends" also includes neighbours, co-workers and expartners.

⁴ Eric G. Moore, Mark W. Rosenberg et al., *Growing Old in Canada*. Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 96-321-MPE, No. 1, 1997, p. 46.

⁵ Leroy O. Stone, 1993. "Social consequences of population ageing: The human support systems dimension." *Proceedings of International Population conference*. Montreal; International Union for the Scientific Study of Population. 3: 25-34.

Most informal care to people with a long-term health (3) problem was given to parents % of care given (by relationship to caregiver) Instrumental tasks Personal care 100 100 Total Spouse 5 16 3 5 Child1 47 Parent1 46 Sibling¹ 6 5 13 11 Extended family Friend² 24 13 Other -- Sample too small to be released. ¹ Also includes those related by marriage or adoption, eg. stepchild, mother-in-law, brother-in-law.

² Also includes neighbours, co-workers and ex-partners.

Source: Statistics Canada, 1996 General Social Survey.

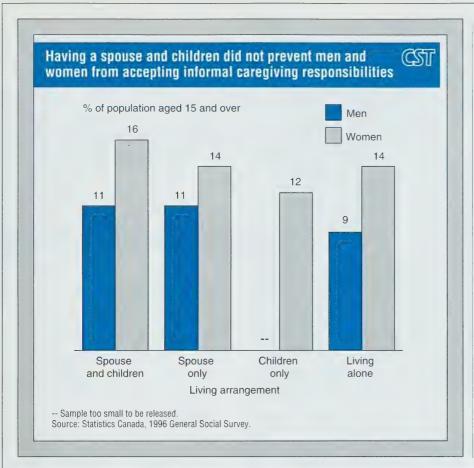
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How do caregivers feel? Whether it is viewed as a completely voluntary activity, as one's duty, a sacrifice, or a necessity, some significant costs can be associated with caring for someone with a long-term health problem. These can include negative feelings the caregiver may harbour, disruptions to the caregiver's life or economic costs.

Respondents were asked a set of questions intended to assess how they felt about their caregiving responsibilities. When asked, 59% of caregivers said they rarely felt that helping others meant that they did not have time for themselves, and 11% said they nearly always felt that way. When the question focussed on the impact caregiving had on their families, almost half of caregivers (46%) rarely felt stressed about helping others while trying to meet family and work responsibilities, while 15% reported nearly always feeling that way. In both instances, women were more likely than men to feel pressed for time.

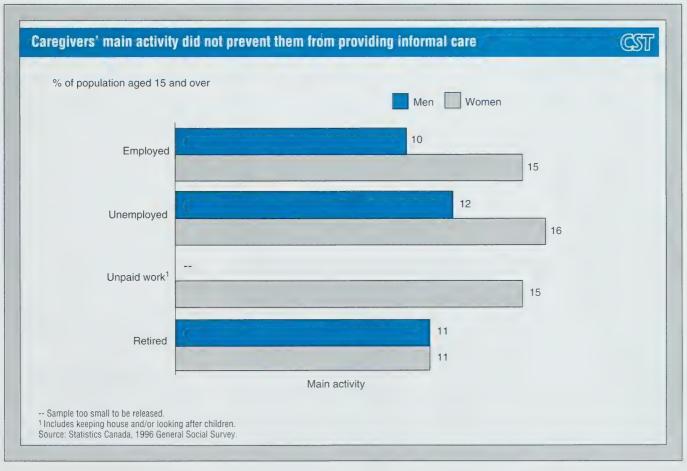
Some questions tapped the feelings caregivers had towards the person they were helping. The majority (64%) of caregivers nearly always felt that helping others strengthened their relationship with them; in contrast, 13% rarely felt that way. Most caregivers only rarely felt angry when they were around the person they were caring for and only 3% nearly always felt angry. While higher proportions of women than men felt anger, both women and men were equally likely to experience the positive feelings of a strengthened relationship. This finding may reflect the type of caregiving being performed by women; as the data suggest, they are doing the more demanding tasks such as personal care. However, when asked how often they wished someone else would take over their caregiving duties, 63 % of caregivers said they did so only rarely, and only 4% reported that they nearly always wished for such relief from their responsibilities.

Caregivers were also asked to state, overall, how great a burden it was to be caring for others. More than half (56%) did not feel at all weighed down by their duties, while about 5% felt "quite a bit" or "extremely" burdened. This response, in particular, suggests that caregivers not only give help, but do so willingly. Although a higher proportion of women than men felt burdened, on the whole differences between men and women were minimal.



People care, but at what cost? Less subjective than feelings are the changes that caregiving responsibilities can have on a person's life. According to the 1996 GSS, 45% of caregivers said they had modified their social activities because they were helping someone, and about 25% had altered their vacation plans. About 12% of caregivers reported that they or the person they were caring for had relocated in order to be in closer proximity to one another, while 6% of caregivers had actually moved in with the person they were assisting.

Some caregivers interrupted their education and work plans. Approximately 6% of caregivers postponed plans to enrol in an education program, while caregivers with paid work reported even more substantial changes in their lives. Half of employed caregivers (55% of women and 45% of men) stated that their caregiving duties affected their work, citing instances of coming to work late or leaving early (34% of women and 31% of men) or having to miss at least one day of work (34% of women and 24% of men). Possibly more significant





Most caregivers experienced some disruption in their lives % of caregivers who agree that helping others caused them... Total Men Women 45 44 47 to make changes in social activities to change holiday plans 25 25 26 to postpone plans to enrol in an educational or training program 6 5 7 to have repercussions at work 50 45 55 to move in with person being helped 6 5 7 to move closer to person being helped 12 9 15 26 to change sleep patterns 29 31 to incur extra expenses 44 46 42 to affect health 21 12 27 Source: Statistics Canada, 1996 General Social Survey.

was the financial cost of providing help to someone with a long-term health problem; 44% of caregivers reported that they had incurred extra expenses in the previous 12 months because of their responsibilities.

Without question, the most severe alterations to caregivers' lives were the changes in their own health status: 29% of caregivers reported that their sleep patterns had changed and 21% said that

their health had been affected. The impact on health showed marked gender differences, with women more than twice as likely to report that their health had been affected.

What help do the caregivers need?

While most caregivers did not have negative feelings about their responsibilities, many experienced substantial changes in their lives. This was especially true for

women. But, when asked what, if anything, might make it easier to cope with the demands of providing care, about half of the caregivers said they needed nothing. Many others suggested potential sources of help, however.

Almost one in seven caregivers (15%) wished someone would occasionally take over their duties, with an equal proportion of women and men feeling this way. Since many people incurred extra expenses, 15% of women and 16% of men caregivers reported that financial compensation for their unpaid work would help them to continue. This finding suggests that there is a group of caregivers whose duties are taking an economic toll on their families.

Knowledge was also regarded as important, with 14% of women and 12% of men wanting information on the nature of long-term illnesses and disabilities. Information on how to be an effective caregiver was also important to both women (14%) and men (10%). An equal proportion of men and women believed that counselling for caregivers would be beneficial (5%).

Summary Among the many social changes facing Canadian society, one of the most important is the need for informal care for people with long-term health problems. The findings of the 1996 GSS indicate that many Canadians already provide such help, and that they do so without resentment. While the majority of caregivers feel very positive about their activities and report few hardships, the demands on some can have considerable consequences, altering the routine of their home and work lives and, in some instances, causing some degree of financial hardship. Further analysis should help to identify measures that will allow caregivers to provide support to their family and friends with greater ease.

Kelly Cranswick is an analyst with Housing, Family and Social Statistics Division, Statistics Canada.

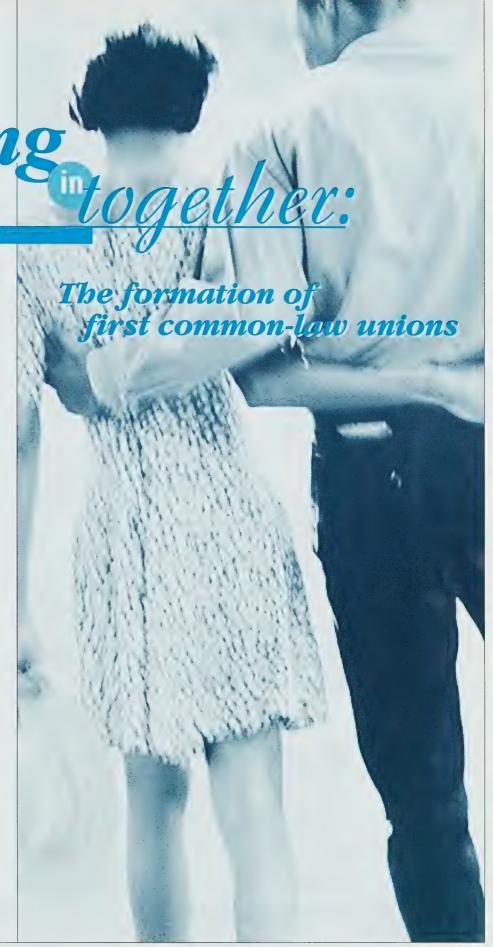


Moving

by Pierre Turcotte and Alain Bélanger

The first conjugal union has a special meaning in one's life. The circumstances attending its creation are generally quite different from those leading to subsequent relationships, as it often coincides with the end of formal schooling, the start of one's working life or leaving the home where one grew up. But in Canada, as in a number of industrialized countries, domestic and family relationships have become much more diverse in the past 30 years. One aspect of this diversification is that new forms of families have appeared; among the main trends is a marked increase in the prevalence of common-law unions.

This study analyzes the influence of selected demographic and socioeconomic characteristics on the likelihood of establishing a common-law union as the first union. The results of the analysis do not differ greatly between men and women, so to avoid repetition, most of the discussion centres on the dynamics of union formation for women.



Majority of first unions are now common-law Nowadays, it appears that Canadian women prefer to live common-law in their first conjugal relationship. Over half (57%) of first conjugal unions formed between 1990 and 1995 were common-law. The proportion is much higher in Quebec, where 80% of all first unions formed during this period were common-law. This form of first union has more than tripled over the past two decades: only 17% of first unions formed in 1970-74 (21% in Quebec) were common-law. This remarkable growth leads us to examine the variety of factors that influence the formation of such unions.

Women in recent birth cohorts choose common-law for first union The probability of living in a first union outside marriage is significantly higher for women in more recent birth cohorts. For women born between 1971 and 1980 (i.e. aged 15 to 24 at the time of the survey), the likelihood of cohabiting was approximately 30% higher than for those born between 1961 and 1970 (aged 25 to 34 at the time of the survey). The probability declines for women born before 1961. Women in these older cohorts generally began their conjugal life before the mid-1970s, well before common-law unions became a widely accepted alternative to marriage.

Choosing a common-law union as the first union is more popular among francophones, regardless of their province of residence. The risk ratio for forming such a union is greater for women whose mother tongue is French, even if they live outside Quebec, than it is for women whose mother tongue is English or a language other than French.

Women who attend religious services every week are half as likely to experience a first common-law union as women who attend only occasionally, and native-born Canadian women are nearly twice as likely as immigrants to opt for a common-law relationship as their first form of conjugal union. The parents' marital history also exerts a major influence on the type of first union that women choose; if their parents' marriage had collapsed before they were 15 years old, women were 75% more likely to opt for a common-law union.

	%	of all first un	ions
Period of formation	Canada	Quebec	Other provinces
1970-74	17	21	15
1975-79	37	47	33
1980-84	41	64	33
1985-89	51	70	44
1990-95	57	80	50

Women with children more likely to enter a first common-law union Women who have a child before entering their first conjugal union have a higher risk of forming a common-law relationship. This result differs from that obtained

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS BACKGROUNDER



Analyzing the formation of first common-law unions

Most of the data that appear in this article are drawn from the 1995 General Social Survey (GSS). The 1995 GSS collected data from nearly 11,000 respondents aged 15 years and over living in private households in the ten provinces; almost 2,500 of these respondents (just under 1,000 in Quebec and about 1,500 elsewhere in Canada) reported that their very first conjugal union was a cohabitation outside marriage. Other data are drawn from the censuses of 1981, 1986 and 1991, which have collected information on the total number of persons who describe themselves as living in common-law unions.

Determining the risk factors The technique called "event history analysis" was used to analyze the 1995 GSS data. This technique combines two tools — life tables and regression analysis — and is ideal for analyzing data gathered by a retrospective survey such as the 1995 GSS, which collects information about life history from respondents. Using life tables in conjunction with regression analysis allows the researcher to measure the net effect of different factors on an individual's probability (or "risk") of experiencing an event. In this article, event history analysis is used to measure the likelihood that, given certain characteristics, Canadians will choose a common-law relationship as their first conjugal union.

The results of the event history analysis are presented in a table showing the risk ratios for a number of variables. Each variable used in the model includes a reference category (shown in parentheses); by definition, the risk ratio for this reference group is equal to 1. The ratios calculated for the other categories of a variable are interpreted in relation to the reference category. If the ratio for the non-reference group is more than 1, the risks of forming a first common-law union (compared with forming no union at all) are greater than for the reference group. Conversely, a ratio less than 1 indicates that the risks are lower for the non-reference group than for the reference group.

Age and employment status are important risk factors for women forming a first common-law union

	Characteristic (Reference variable in parentheses)	Relative risk (Reference ratio = 1)
Birth cohor	t 1971-1980	1.319
	(1961-1970)	1
	1951-1960	0.697
	Before 1951	0.130
Mother	(French, Quebec)	1
tongue and	French, other provinces	0.814
region of	Other languages, Quebec	0.590
residence	Other languages, other provinces	0.599
Religious	Never	1.423
practice	(A few times per month or year)	1
	At least once a week	0.523
Place of bir	rth (Canada)	1
	Abroad	0.512
Dissolution	of Yes	1.740
parent's ma	arriage (No)	1
Employmen	it Employed	1.958
status	(Not employed)	1
Educationa	Less than secondary diploma	0.932*
level	(Secondary diploma/college)	1
	University	1.082*
Birth of firs	t child Before union	1.462
	(Not before union)	1

Note: Significant at the 0.05 threshold unless marked with an asterisk (*). Source: Statistics Canada, 1995 General Social Survey.

in a study based on the 1984 Family History Survey, which found that out-of-wedlock births tended to lower the risk of entering a common-law union. Other studies have also shown that the majority of single mothers ultimately marry, often within a few years of the child's birth. The 1995 GSS results seem to support recent research in the United States, which found that the probability of a first marriage declines if a child is born before the first union, but that the likelihood of a first common-law union increases. ²

Being employed³ increases the probability that a woman's first union will be common-law; in fact, women who had held a job were twice as likely as those not working outside the home to opt for a common-law union. This finding appears to indicate that women's participation in the labour market gives them a degree of financial autonomy that allows them greater flexibility in choosing their conjugal arrangement.

The likelihood of entering a common-law union does not vary significantly among women with different levels of educational attainment. Women with less than a secondary school diploma and those with university education showed approximately the

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS BACKGROUNDER

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Common-law unions: a growing phenomenon

Since the early 1980s, the number of persons living common-law has nearly tripled. By 1995, 2 million people (nearly 1 in 7 Canadian couples) were living common-law, compared with 700,000 (less than 1 in 16 couples) in 1981. Not only has the prevalence of common-law unions increased rapidly, but their rate of increase has also accelerated.

% of couples living common-law

	Canada	Quebec	Other provinces
1981	6	8	6
1986	8	13	7
1991	11	19	9
1995	14	25	11

Sources: Statistics Canada, 1981, 1986 and 1991 Censuses; 1995 General Social Survey.

same probability as those who had a secondary school diploma.⁴ On the other hand, women who were presently enrolled in an educational program were 30% less likely to form first common-law unions than those who were not going to school. Similar findings have been obtained in the United States and Europe.⁵

Men's behaviour is similar to women's, with one exception In general, the demographic and socioeconomic factors that influence the formation of first common-law unions are no different for men than for women. That is, if a characteristic such as mother tongue increases the likelihood that women will experience a first common-law union, it also increases the likelihood for men. The magnitude of the effect is not always the same, but it is usually within the same range. However, while women's probability of living common-law increases from one birth cohort to the next, the same is not always true of men. For example, men born between 1971 and 1980 (aged 15 to 24 at the time of the survey) are not significantly more likely to opt for a common-law union than those born between 1961 and 1970 (aged 25 to 34).

¹ Desrosiers, Hélène and Céline Le Bourdais, "Les unions libres chez les femmes canadiennes: étude des processus de formation et de dissolution", *Population, reproduction, sociétés. Perspectives et enjeux de démographie sociale*, Montréal, Les Presses de l'Université de Montréal, 1993, pp. 197-214.

² Bennett, Neil G., David E. Bloom and Cynthia K. Miller, "The influence of Nonmarital Childbearing on the Formation of First Marriages", *Demography*, Vol. 32, No 1, 1995, pp. 47-62.

^{3 &}quot;Employed" is defined as holding a job for more than six months.

⁴ The approach used to estimate transition periods for education does not take account of the fact that some people temporarily interrupt their education.

⁵ Blossfeld, Hans-Peter (editor). *The New Role of Women - Family Formation in Modern Societies*, Westview Press, Social Inequality Series, Boulder, 1995.



A few words about marriage The same techniques used to assess the risk factors associated with forming a first common-law union were also applied to first marriages. The analysis identified two major groups of characteristics: those that affect the likelihood of forming a conjugal union of either type, and those that influence the choice between marriage and a common-law union. For example, two factors that appear to have a strong influence on union formation are being employed and/or having a child. However, a woman's age and cultural characteristics seem to influence which type of union she chooses. Interestingly, the dissolution of her parents' marriage has no significant effect on the likelihood that a woman will marry, but it does have a significant impact on the probability that she will live in a common-law relationship.

Summary The proliferation of common-law unions is thought to be associated with many recent social changes that have influenced trends in family behaviours and attitudes. Several factors appear to underlie these changes, including the massive entry of women into the labour market (with the resulting

increase in women's autonomy); the dissociation between sexuality and marriage and between fertility and marriage; the decline in religious practice; and the redefinition of the roles and expectations of spouses. The 1995 GSS does not address these issues directly, but it has identified several characteristics that have a significant effect on the probability that people will live common-law in their first conjugal relationship.

This article is an excerpt from "Dynamics of Common-law Unions in Canada," a Statistics Canada Research Paper, available on the Internet. The URL is http://www.statcan.ca/english/Vlib/other9.htm

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"Ifeel overqualified for my job..."

◄ he Canadian population has become more highly educated in the last 25 years: between 1971 and 1996, the percentage of adults with more than a high school education more than doubled from 21% to 50%, while the proportion with a university degree tripled from 5% to 15%. At the same time, many jobs are demanding more sophisticated and technically complex skills, as shifts in Canada's industrial structure and rapid advances in information technologies raise the basic skill requirements of the workplace. It may seem odd that, in a time when an internationally competitive economy needs highly skilled workers, many well-educated workers feel that their education and experience exceed the demands of the job. Nonetheless, many well-educated Canadians feel they are overqualified for their jobs.

This article cites data from the 1994 General Social Survey (GSS) and focuses on Canadian workers who have graduated from a university or community college. Workers were asked: "Considering your experience, education and training, do you feel that you are overqualified for your job?" Although respondents did not identify their reasons for describing themselves as overqualified, well-educated workers may feel overqualified if they take jobs requiring lower levels of skill; if their skill set does not match the requirements of the job market; or if their job expectations remain unmet.

¹ Includes university and college graduates who were employed at the time of the survey and whose main activity during the previous year was working at a job or business.



by Karen Kelly, Linda Howatson-Leo and Warren Clark One in five well-educated Canadians felt overqualified for their jobs In 1994, there were 4.4 million employed Canadians — 39% of all workers — with a university or community college certificate, diploma or degree. More than one-fifth (22% or just under 1 million) of these workers felt overqualified for their jobs. Twenty-seven percent of those with an earned doctorate, master's or diploma above the bachelor's level felt overqualified, compared with just over one-fifth of those with a bachelor's/first professional degree² (22%) or a community college diploma (21%).

Postsecondary graduates in jobs that may not require postsecondary education are more likely to feel overqualified. For example, in 1994, 23% of university and community college graduates were employed as clerical, sales or service workers, and 37% of them felt overqualified for their jobs. When the effects of other

demographic and socio-economic factors are held constant, the odds of feeling overqualified was at least twice as great for graduates working in clerical, sales and service jobs as for those in management or professional jobs.

Women more likely than men to feel overqualified In 1994, one in four women with a university or community college education felt overqualified for their jobs, compared with one in five male graduates. While it is true that women are more likely to work in service and clerical positions,³ the difference in men's and women's assessment of their jobs can only partially be explained by their differing occupational profiles. All other factors being equal, the odds of feeling overqualified were 1.3 to 1.6 times greater for women than men. One possible explanation is that more women

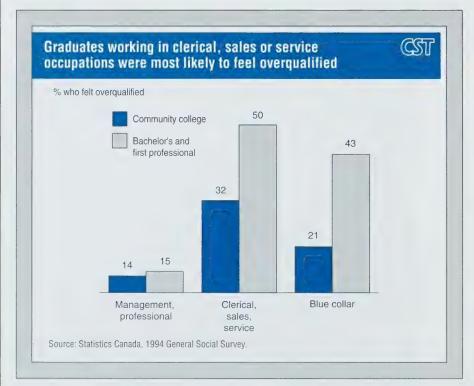
than men may accept jobs with lower-level requirements in order to balance family demands and earning an income; for example, taking a retail sales job because it allows them to work part-time.

Young adults feel over-educated for their jobs According to the GSS data, some of the most highly qualified young graduates have difficulty finding jobs that they believe match their educational credentials and experience. This belief was most frequently reported by young graduates aged 20 to 29 with a bachelor's/first professional degree (37%). Bachelor's graduates in their twenties may have felt overqualified because almost 30% of them held clerical. sales, service, or blue collar positions, whereas the likelihood that older graduates held such jobs was much lower. But even after accounting for other factors, including occupation, the odds of feeling overqualified were 1.8 times greater for bachelor's degree-holders aged 20 to 29 than for those aged 35 to 44 or 55 to 64.

A somewhat smaller proportion of community college graduates in their twenties (25%) felt overqualified for their job, even though they were more likely to be employed in the type of occupations in which university graduates felt most overqualified. This seems to suggest that college graduates found jobs more closely matching their skills and expectations. All other factors being held constant, the odds of feeling overqualified were about half as great for young college graduates as for those aged 55 to 64.

² Includes first professional degrees in medicine (MD), dentistry (DDS, DMD), veterinary medicine (DVM), law (LLB), optometry (OD), and divinity (MDIV), and one-year B.Ed after a bachelor's degree.

A high proportion of postsecondary graduates work in clerical, sales, service or blue collar jobs Type of job held when interviewed Educational attainment Clerical. Management, Blue Felt oversales, qualified professional service collar (%) (% distribution by occupation) Postsecondary graduates 22 23 13 Community college certificate or diploma 21 46 30 24 Undergraduate diploma or certificate 23 58 32 10 22 17 Bachelor's or first professional degree 78 5 Master's degree, earned doctorate1 27 83 12 5 1 Includes university diplomas or certificates above a bachelor's degree. Source: Statistics Canada, 1994 General Social Survey



 $^{^3}$ In 1994, women who had completed university or community college were three times more likely than men to have a clerical or service job (24% versus 8%).

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS BACKGROUNDER



Influences on feeling overqualified for a job are complex

The 1994 GSS asked respondents if they felt they were overqualified for their current job, given their education, training and experience. A wide range of factors can influence a person's answer to that question; for example education, current occupation, earnings, age, sex and work history. Of course, other factors that were not collected by the GSS may play a significant role in determining people's opinion of their job such as job expectations, relationships with co-workers and supervisors, skill requirements, and skill resources.

A simple model has been developed to illustrate the relationship between feeling overqualified and socio-demographic characteristics. The table below shows how great an effect various socio-demographic characteristics had on workers' belief that they were overqualified for their job. It presents the odds that a group of workers with a certain characteristic will feel overqualified relative to the odds that a bench mark group of workers will feel overqualified (odds ratio) when all other variables in the analysis are held constant. The bench mark group is shown in boldface for each characteristic. For example, the odds ratio for college graduates in blue collar jobs is 3.4; this indicates that the odds they feel overqualified for their job is 3.4 times greater than college graduates in managerial or professional occupations (bench mark category), after the influence of all other variables shown in the table has been removed. A number of variables — for example occupation, income and field of study — interact together. The model has not accounted for these interactions in order to simplify the description of the results.

Ouus latio idi lecima oveludamilea idi a ida	Odds ratio f	or feeling overq	ualified for a	iob
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Socio-demographic (characteristics		Odds ratio
		College	Bachelor's and first professional
Age	20-29	0.4	1.8
· ·	30-34	0.4	1.3
	35-44	0.4	1.0
	45-54	0.5	1.8
	55-64	1.0	1.0
Sex	Men	1.0	1.0
	Women	1.3	1.6
Field of study	Education, recreation, counselling	1.0	1.0
	Commerce, management and business administration	1.0	1.7
	Engineering and applied science		2.0
	Engineering and applied science technologies and trades	0.2	
	Fine and applied arts, humanities, social sciences	0.7	1.3
	Health professions, sciences and technologies	0.6	
	Math and physical sciences		1.6
Occupation	Management, professional	1.0	1.0
	Clerical, sales or service	2.4	4.9
	Blue collar	3.4	4.6
Employment	Less than \$15,000	3.3	5.9
income	\$15,000 to less than \$50,000	1.4	4.9
	\$50,000 or more	1.0	1.0
Lost job in	Yes	1.5	1.0
last 5 years	No	1.0	1.0
Job tenure	for every year of job tenure	0.96	0.95

⁻⁻ Sample too small to be released.

Source: Statistics Canada, 1994 General Social Survey.

CANADIAN CST SOCIAL TRENDS BACKGROUNDER

What is an odds ratio?

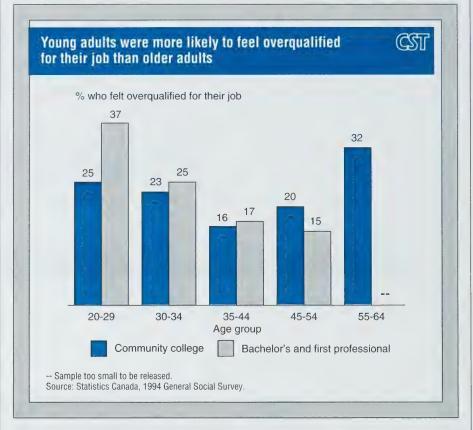
To help understand what an odds ratio means and how to interpret it, the following example using hypothetical numbers might be instructive. If there were 20 men who felt overqualified for their job and 80 who did not feel overqualified, then the odds of feeling overqualified are 20÷80=0.25. This implies that for every 100 men who do not feel overqualified, there are 25 who do feel overqualified.

An odds ratio expands on this concept by measuring the strength of association between two variables. The value of an odds ratio can range from zero to infinity, where an odds ratio of 1 indicates there is no association between the variables being studied. For example, the odds ratio could compare the odds of feeling overqualified for women to the odds of feeling overqualified for men. An odds ratio of 1 means there is no association between gender and feeling overqualified for the job, but an odds ratio of greater than 1 means that women are more likely to feel overqualified than men. Similarly, when the odds ratio is less than 1, women are less likely than men to feel overqualified. So if 25 women felt overqualified for their jobs and 75 didn't, the odds of women feeling overqualified is 25÷75=0.33. Returning to the example for men, the odds ratio of women feeling overqualified relative to men is $0.33 \div 0.25 = 1.32$.

Some labour market observers believe that some young well-educated Canadians are unable to find meaningful work and therefore this group is more likely to feel overqualified. Also, young people have little previous work experience and are perhaps judging the job as inadequate before its real

nature (and full responsibilities) have become apparent; when fully initiated into the job, the young worker may assess it differently.

This suggestion seems to be supported by the GSS, which shows that workers in transition (i.e., those with short job



Field of study	College	Bachelor's and first profes- sional degree
		%
Total	21	22
Education, recreation, counselling	30	18
Fine and applied arts, humanities, social sciences	24	27
Commerce, management and business administration	33	26
Engineering and applied science ¹		24
Engineering and applied science technologies and trades ²	10	
Health professions, sciences and technologies	14	
Mathematics and physical sciences		20



CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS BACKGROUNDER



I want a good job when I graduate

Finding a job consistent with their educational attainment is an important goal for young people. They expect to receive a sufficiently high return on their investment in education to compensate for their costs and foregone income while they were studying. Without stable work, young people may be deprived of the material and social benefits of a job; without rewarding work, they may feel dissatisfied with their job, have poor relationships with co-workers, low job motivation, a high rate of job turnover and lower psychological well-being. The lack of stable and rewarding work may also inhibit other social transitions such as formation of separate households, marriage, and a sense of self and maturity.

The belief that they are overqualified for the job may change as young graduates adapt to the work environment and family priorities. A study of recent graduates in the United States found that the most important characteristics of a job when a young person first started working were very achievement-oriented – challenge and diversity, opportunities for technical or managerial career advancement, and a high degree of authority for their project. After some work experience, however, factors related to quality of life — such as time to reflect on the job, work schedules and benefits — became increasingly important.³

- ¹ Borgen W.A., N.E. Amundson and H.G. Harder, "The experience of underemployment," *Journal of Employment Counselling*, Vol. 25, December 1988; and J. Hersh, "Education match and job match," *Review of Economics and Statistics*, Vol. 73, No. 1.
- ² Hartnagel T.F. and H. Krahn, "Labour market problems and psychological well-being: A panel study of Canadian youth in transition from school to work," *British Journal of Education and Work*, Vol. 8, No. 3, 1995.
- ³ Cotterman R., "How recent graduates view their jobs," *Research Technology Management*, Vol. 34, No. 3, May-June 1991.

tenure), regardless of age, were more likely to feel overqualified than workers who had long-term employment in the same job. In 1994, one in three of those who had been in their job for less than two years felt their qualifications exceeded the job's requirements, compared with one in six of those with five or more years of job tenure.

Previous job loss affects perceptions of current job In 1994, 16% of college graduates who were working at the time of the GSS had lost a job at least once in the previous five years. The odds of feeling overqualified were 1.5 times higher for these workers than for those who had not lost a job. Interestingly, job loss had a greater influence on older graduates feeling overqualified, even though younger graduates were more likely to have experienced a job loss during this period. Older workers often have a more difficult time than younger workers in finding new employment at the same level of skill, knowledge and authority associated with their previous job. Also, if some people had depleted their financial reserves and were forced to take employment simply to make ends meet, their higher rate of discontent with their current job is understandable.4

Feelings of overqualification varied by field of study The 1994 GSS shows that workers who had completed college programs in engineering and applied science technologies and trades (10%)⁵ and health professions, sciences and technologies (14%)⁶ were least likely to feel overqualified. Evidently, most of them had found jobs that matched their expectations. On the other hand, the workers most likely to feel they had more qualifications than the job needed were graduates of college programs in commerce, management and administration (33%).

- ⁴ Daniel C. Feldman, "The nature, antecedents and consequences of underemployment," *Journal of Management*, Vol. 22, No. 3, 1996.
- ⁵ Examples of training programs in engineering and applied science technologies and trades at the community college level include computer science technology, microcomputer and information systems, architectural technology, earth resources technology, drafting, survey and photogrammetric technology.
- ⁶ Examples of training programs in health professions, sciences and technologies at the community college level include nursing, X-ray medical technology, dental assistant and pharmacy assistant.

A 1992 survey of people who had graduated in 1990 found that bachelor's/ first professional graduates in general arts and science, humanities, social science or fine and applied arts were most likely to report that their job did not require a post-secondary qualification. The 1994 GSS found that graduates from these fields were the most likely bachelor's graduates to feel overqualified (27%). About a quarter of bachelor's/first professional graduates from commerce, management and business administration or engineering and applied science also reported the same feelings.

Low employment income has a strong effect on workers' opinion of job

Almost half (47%) of university and community college graduates who earned under \$15,000 in 1994 felt their skills and knowledge exceeded the requirements of the job, while only 11% with earnings over \$50,000 felt that way. This finding is not unexpected, nor is it surprising that the impact of low earnings is particularly marked for university graduates. After holding all other factors constant, the odds of feeling overqualified were 5.9 times greater for

university graduates with earnings under \$15,000 than for those making over \$50,000; among workers with community college, the odds were 3.3 times higher for low-earners.

Summary Canadians have become more highly educated in the last 25 years while new jobs require increasingly higher levels of education. Nonetheless, 1994 survey data show that over one-fifth of Canada's well-educated workers feel they are overqualified for the job they are doing. People generally prefer to have jobs appropriate to their education and experience; finding such a match, however, may be difficult and some workers may accept jobs that require less skill and knowledge than they possess.

The advancement of information technology may have contributed to the problem. Computers in the workplace first displaced people processing relatively simple information and working in highly paid manual jobs. Computers now have the processing capabilities to replace some of the human labour of people in the well-paid white collar jobs that were traditionally held by postsecondary graduates.⁸ The result has been

the disappearance and "deskilling" of some white collar jobs. Consequently, well-educated workers may feel overqualified if they remain in a deskilled job, while those who do not have the training now needed in the fast-growing fields of high-skilled knowledge jobs may be forced into lower level jobs. However, almost half the workers who believe they are overqualified for their job are under 35, and their feelings may change as they acquire more work experience, obtain better jobs or adjust their expectations.

⁷ Don Little and Louise Lapierre, *The Class of 90: A compendium of findings from the 1992 National Graduates Survey of 1990 Graduates*, Human Resources Development Canada and Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. MP43-366/1996E, 1996.

Michael Dunkerley, "The jobless economy? Computer technology in the world of work," Polity Press, 1996, p. 33.

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St. John's: Canada's Oldest City



t. John's, Newfoundland is one of the oldest settlements in North America, and has survived for five centuries to become one of Canada's most charming and unique cities. Located on the island's eastern extremity, the Census Metropolitan Area (CMA) of St. John's is the second most populous region in the Atlantic provinces. With one of the finest harbours in the North Atlantic, it provides a supply and service base and repair centre for international fleets. As well, it is the primary distribution centre for the province of Newfoundland and Labrador. Over the past vear, St. John's and Newfoundland have celebrated the 500th anniversary of John Cabot's arrival on the island.

BY SYLVIE OUELLETTE AND CAROLE BLAIS-ST. DENIS

An aging population The CMA of St. John's has grown slowly but steadily in recent years and had 174,050 residents in 1996. Although the provincial population declined for the first time in its history (down 2.9% between 1991 and 1996), St. John's population grew by 1.3% over the same period. However, the increase was largely due to migration, mainly from other regions of the province, rather than natural population growth.

Roughly 60% of the migration to St. John's is intra-provincial. For instance, in 1994-95, the CMA of St. John's had a net influx of almost 1,200 people from other parts of Newfoundland. Since most colleges and university campuses are located in or near the city, students from other areas of Newfoundland who want to stay in the province to pursue their education usually have to move to St. John's. The high rates of unemployment and seasonal employment also contribute to the exodus of people from the province's towns and villages. At the same time, however, the capital city loses some of its residents to other major urban centres. Toronto, Halifax and Vancouver together took over one quarter of all the people who left the CMA of St. John's in 1994-95. Except for

those returning to their native province, very few people move to Newfoundland. In 1991, 90% of the people who lived in

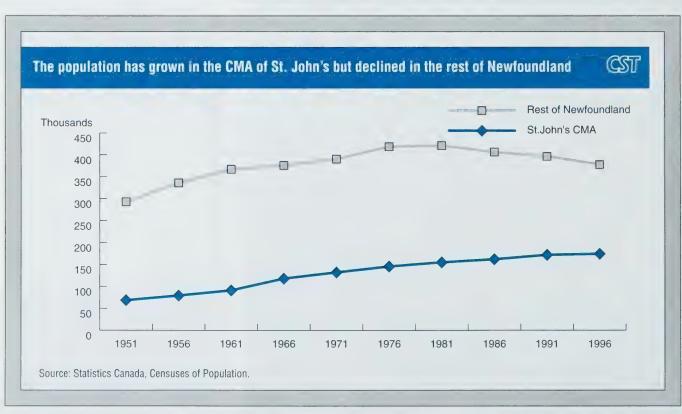
the CMA of St. John's, and 93% of those in Newfoundland, had been born in the province. This is a much

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS BACKGROUNDER



St. John's - A consistent first

- The first census of St. John's, conducted in 1675, enumerated 185 people.
- Italian electrical engineer Guglielmo Marconi became obsessed with the idea that waves could be used for transmitting information without the need of wire connections. Wireless telegraphy became universal in 1901 when, in St. John's, Marconi received the first radio-wave signal, sent out from Cornwall in England. On the night of April 14, 1912, this invention helped save many lives when the Titanic sent out an SOS call, after colliding with an iceberg off the Grand Banks.
- Seventy-eight years ago, Captain John Alcock and Lieutenant Arthur Brown made the first ever nonstop transatlantic flight from St. John's to Clifden, Ireland. The flight took 16 hours and 12 minutes.
- The Royal St. John's Regatta is North America's oldest continuous sporting event. The first recorded official date for the race is 1826, but it is likely the boat racing began in the 1700s. Men's crews row a 2.45 kilometre course and women's crews a course of half that distance. Regatta Day attracts between 40,000 and 50,000 people to St. John's every year and generates approximately \$1 million for the local economy.



Median total income is in the capital area of S	ante del America del Angol (1911), procesa en la casa al casa del como de la casa del como del como del como d	(C)	
Family type	St. John's	Median total income Newfoundland	Canada
All families	\$43,300	\$34,700	\$44,300
Husband-wife families	\$49,100	\$38,400	\$49,000
Lone-parent families	\$18,000	\$15,700	\$20,900
Non-family persons	\$13,600	\$12,100	\$16,100

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS BACKGROUNDER



What a celebration!

Five-hundred years ago, in 1497, Italian-born explorer John Cabot (Giovanni Cabota) and his crew left Bristol, England in their vessel the Matthew. They sailed across the Atlantic Ocean to an island just south of Greenland. Off the coast of this island — thought to be Newfoundland — one of the world's most important discoveries took place: instead of gold, Cabot and his crew found an overwhelmingly abundant supply of fish. Thereafter, thousands of fishermen from Spain, Portugal, France and England came every summer to fish the Grand Banks, making the settlement of St. John's their temporary home. Eventually, these men brought their families with them to begin a new life in the New World.

Newfoundland became England's first overseas territory when, in 1583, Sir Humphrey Gilbert declared to the captains and crews of the fishing vessels in St. John's harbour that he was claiming "New Founde Lande" for Queen Elizabeth I. By 1610, St. John's was granted a special charter as Newfoundland's first colony. The island achieved colonial status in 1832 when Great Britain granted Newfoundland the right of representative government. In 1948, the people of Newfoundland and Labrador voted by a narrow margin to join the Canadian federation. On March 31, 1949, Newfoundland became Canada's tenth province.

In 1997, Newfoundland and Labrador celebrated the John Cabot 500th Anniversary. The year-long festivities were launched in January with a Sunrise Ceremony on Signal Hill. Events included "Festival 500 - Sharing the Voices" which united over 30 adult and youth choirs representing over one thousand singers and conductors from all over the world. In May, Skipper David Alan-Williams and his crew left Bristol, England in a reproduction of the Matthew to retrace the voyage taken 500 years ago by John Cabot. Seven weeks later, on June 24, the skipper and his crew made landfall at Bonavista, Newfoundland, to be greeted by Her Majesty Queen Elizabeth II and His Royal Highness Prince Philip, Duke of Edinburgh, as well as other dignitaries. In June, the "Cabot and his World" symposium attracted about 7,000 participants to Memorial University; on July 1, Canada Day was celebrated at Signal Hill; and in the first week of August, the Royal St. John's Regatta was held on Quidi Vidi Lake for the 171st consecutive year.

higher "native-born" rate than the average recorded for all Canadian provinces (69%).

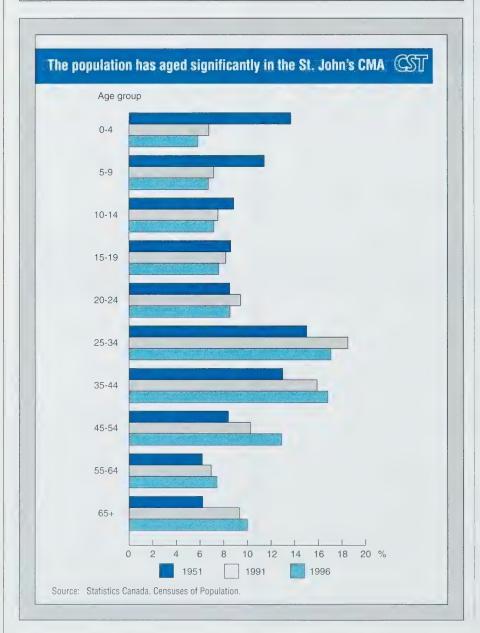
At the same time, natural growth is declining. Although Newfoundland has long been known for its large families, the average family size in St. John's and Newfoundland in 1995 was about 3.1 people, close to the national average of 3.0. That same year, the total fertility rate for Newfoundland was 1.25 children per woman, the lowest rate ever recorded for a Canadian province. One consequence of the decline in natural growth and the rise in out-migration has been a considerable aging of the population. In 1996, the median age of the population of St. John's was 33 years and the rest of Newfoundland was 34 years, up almost 10 years from 1951.

British background As the city's history would suggest, the people of St. John's are almost exclusively of European origin - more specifically, of English and Irish descent. In the first three centuries after its founding, St. John's was populated by people from England, Ireland and France. By 1951, however, nearly 95% of the population of Newfoundland reported their ethnic origin as English, Irish, Scottish or Welsh, whereas no more than 1% were of French descent; in 1991, the ethnic composition was largely unchanged. Not surprisingly, English is the mother tongue of virtually all residents (about 98%), whereas the French language is exceptionally rare.

Unique traditions Newfoundlanders have always shown a keen interest in arts and culture, especially music, perhaps because many of them are of Celtic descent. A number of musical groups such as Rawlins Cross and Signal Hill from St.John's and Buddy Wasisname and the Other Fellers from Gander are very popular throughout Newfoundland and the Maritimes, while Great Big Sea is attaining national recognition, going platinum with their recent album "Up." The Sea plays traditional acoustic instruments and sings four-part harmony to traditional ballads and jigs as well as their own songs.

The people of Newfoundland are also fans of amateur dramatics, an art form whose popularity has grown rapidly since 1949. Folk arts such as ballad

	% of population 15 and over		
Educational attainment	St. John's CMA	Rest of Newfoundland	
0-8 years (elementary)	9	19	
Some secondary education	18	23	
Graduated from high school	15	16	
Some postsecondary education	15	8	
Postsecondary certificate or diploma (includes trades certificate)	30	27	
University degree	14	8	



singing, songwriting and storytelling have been enjoyed for centuries, while a variety of speech patterns and numerous dialects, especially in the outports, add to the richness of the performance. Square dancing and step dancing are very popular at folk festivals.

Catching up on education Newfound-land's education system has changed significantly from the days when many schools had only one classroom for all grades, and few teachers had attended university. In 1949, a child had only one chance in 700 of obtaining a Grade 11 education (high school completion), partly because secondary education was inaccessible in many areas. Today, high school is available to all children in Newfoundland, and more Islanders than ever before go on to university or college.

People living in the St. John's area have even more opportunities to further their education. St. John's boasts a number of private colleges and Memorial University. Not surprisingly, the level of education is higher than elsewhere in Newfoundland. In 1996, 44% of the people in St. John's had a postsecondary certificate/diploma or university degree, compared with only 35% in the rest of the province.

Working in the capital city Newfoundland had one of the highest rates of unemployment in Canada in 1996, at 19%. The CMA of St. John's fared better at 14%. One-third of the province's labour force lives in St. John's. Moreover, a large proportion of workers (42%) are in managerial and professional occupations, and only the CMA of Ottawa-Hull boasts a higher percentage of workers in these occupations (47%). As in other large urban centres, the majority of jobs are in the service and health care sectors. In 1996, the main sources of employment were hospitals, the federal and provincial governments, the food industry and communications. By comparison, the economy in the rest of the province is still, to a large extent, based directly or indirectly on natural resource industries. Fishing remained the biggest employer outside St. John's in 1996, in spite of the 1992 fishing moratorium that was imposed on certain species (partial

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS BACKGROUNDER



Highlights

Newfoundland

Provincial Capital:

Entered Confederation: March 31, 1949

Original Name: "New Founde Lande" was the name

given to the island by its first explorers

Provincial Flower:
Provincial Tree:
Provincial Bird:
Pitcher plant
Black spruce
Puffin

St. John's (Census Metropolitan Area), 1991

Language spoken at home: English (98%)

Ethnic Origin: Of the population who reported a

single ethnic origin: English,

Scottish, Welsh (76%), Irish (20%)

and, French (1%).
Religions: Catholic (4

Catholic (49%) Protestant (47%)

St. John's

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS BACKGROUNDER



Diversifying the economy

The provincial government has launched a number of initiatives in an effort to diversify the Newfoundland economy. Many companies from abroad have taken advantage of incentives introduced by the EDGE Program (Economic Diversification and Growth Enterprise), which exempts all new companies from paying municipal and sales taxes for ten years, as well as providing a \$2,000 grant for each job created. The government is also providing incentives for self-employment and telework, both of which are fast gaining acceptance throughout the province.

Perhaps the best-known of Newfoundland's economic projects is the Hibernia oil project. Building the oil-drilling platform has created many jobs in the St. John's area for a number of years; employment averaged 4,400 to 5,500 workers in 1996. The Hibernia rig is the largest oil-drilling platform ever built. With a 600,000-tonne concrete base, it is designed to withstand 30-metre waves and 6-million-tonne icebergs. The five-layer superstructure contains a petrochemical plant, a hotel, an infirmary, a cafeteria and exercise rooms. Although the construction phase of the project is now over, Hibernia will continue to provide permanent employment for about 1,000 people. The rig is scheduled to begin pumping oil by mid-December, 1997, and is expected to produce 135,000 to 150,000 barrels of oil a day for approximately 20 years. When the oil field is abandoned, the platform will be towed to land and dismantled.

reopening was granted in May 1997). Of the many affected people in the fishing industry, some registered with the TAGS program (The Atlantic Groundfish Strategy is an income support, training and adjustment program), some diversified their activities in the industry, while others may have moved to St. John's or other parts of Canada to look for work.

Total income in St. John's is roughly the same as that for Canada, mainly because the CMA has many jobs in the high-tech and service industries. In 1995, total median income for all families was \$43,300 in the capital, compared with only \$34,700 in Newfoundland. For husband-wife families, the figures were \$49,100 for St. John's but only \$38,400 for the province.

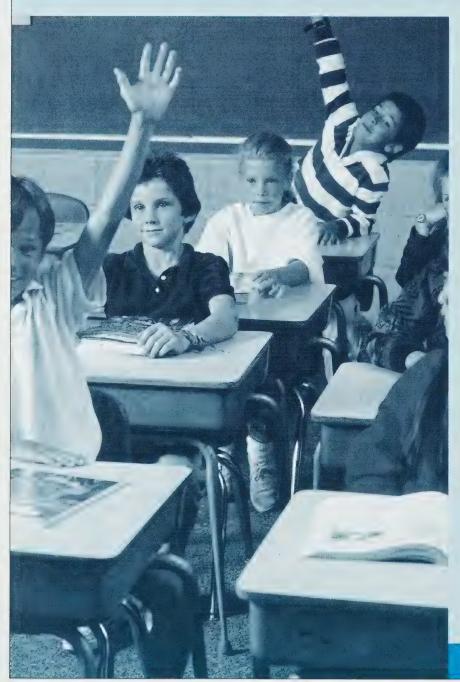
Summary The province of Newfoundland and Labrador is faced with considerable challenges as it enters the next century. But as the Cabot 500 celebrations have shown, St. John's and Newfoundland are reaching out to the world. Since the province joined Confederation in 1949, it has improved access to education and worked to diversify its economic base. Much energy has been devoted to developing high-tech skills to meet world-class standards; for example, every school in the province is connected to the Internet, compared with only 20% of schools elsewhere in the country in 1996. All these efforts are bearing fruit, as St John's is rapidly becoming a leader in telecommunications technology and a world centre for marine and cold ocean research.

Sylvie Ouellette was an analyst with Housing, Family and Social Statistics Division, Statistics Canada and **Carole Blais-St.Denis** is the research assistant with *Canadian Social Trends*.



The social context of school

Young Children



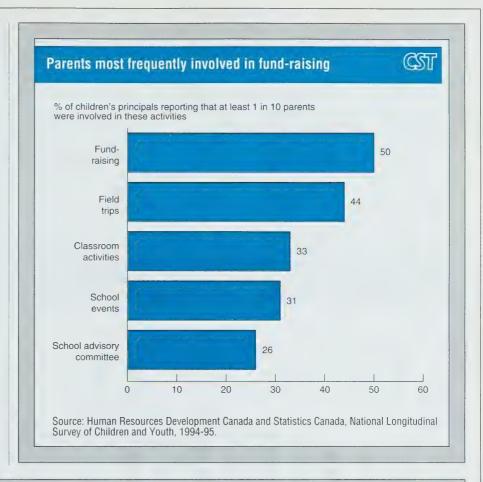
chools play an important role in children's intellectual, social and physical development. Recent information from the National Longitudinal Survey of Children and Youth (NLSCY) may be able to cast some light on how children become successful learners. Based on the responses of the children's teachers and principals, and the results of a standardized mathematics test, it is possible to examine how children's school experiences, environment, and family socio-economic background influence their development and education.

This article briefly highlights some of the results from the first cycle of the NLSCY. It focuses on parental involvement in school, socio-economic status and academic outcomes, and indicators of school problems.

by Garth Lipps and Jeffrey Frank

Parents often involved in their children's schools Parental involvement in the school may improve a student's education by strengthening the link between home and school. In 1994-95, the NLSCY collected information on the ways in which parents can be involved in their child's education. These forms of involvement include direct activities, such as parent-teacher meetings and volunteering at school, and less direct involvement such as supporting the educational efforts of the teacher and school.

In general, the children's teachers reported that parents took an active role in their child's education. For more than 9 out of 10 children, at least one parent had attended a regularly scheduled parent-teacher conference. Similarly, for about 7 out of 10 children, the parents had called the teacher to discuss their child's education or behaviour at school. As well, for about one-half of children, the teacher had telephoned the child's parents at some point during the school year; in 9 out of 10 of these cases, the parents returned the phone call.



CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS BACKGROUNDER



Data source and definitions

The National Longitudinal Survey of Children and Youth (NLSCY) The National Longitudinal Survey of Children and Youth, a joint project of Human Resources Development Canada and Statistics Canada, is a comprehensive survey concerning factors that influence child development. Information will be collected every two years on the same children as they grow up, as well as on the environments in which they live, learn and play. Information is collected from parents, teachers, principals and from the children themselves.

The first cycle of the survey took place in 1994-95 and collected information on almost 23,000 children, from newborns to 11-year-olds. In an interview with the person most knowledgeable about the child (usually the child's mother) the NLSCY gathered information on demographics, socio-economic background, child health and development, behaviour, relationships, education, literacy, recreation and leisure activities, family functioning, parenting, child care arrangements and family custody history.

In addition to the household-based interview, the NLSCY collected information on child development and functioning using a variety of other methods: mathematics computation and vocabulary tests; self-completed questionnaires (for children aged 10 and 11 only); and questionnaires completed by the child's school teacher and principal. These latter questionnaires collected information on children's academic achievement and behaviour at school, and on their classroom and school environments.

The School Component of the NLSCY covers children aged 4 to 11 attending school in 1994-95 (mainly in kindergarten to Grade 6). Data are available on the behaviour and educational functioning of 7,000 of the 12,500 eligible school-aged children (from the teacher's questionnaire) and on school characteristics for about 6,900 children attending approximately 2,800 schools (from the principal's questionnaire).

Teachers' perceptions also provide insight into indirect aspects of parental involvement. According to teachers, the parents of virtually all children were either "somewhat" (30%) or "very" (67%) involved in their child's education. Similarly, teachers stated that most of the parents perceived school to be "very important" (77%). They also reported that most parents "strongly support" (75%) their teaching efforts.

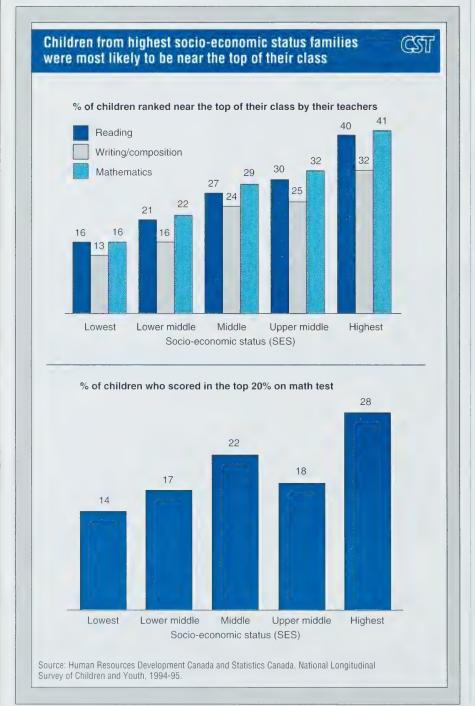
Parents may also contribute to the quality of their children's education by getting

involved in school activities; however, principals reported that many parents did not participate in school activities. Those who did, though, most frequently chose activities such as fund-raising and field trips. Parents were less likely to take on roles that usually required a continuing commitment, such as being involved with classroom activities, the school advisory committee, or helping with school events such as sports or plays. According to principals, parents were least likely to be involved in supervising children at school.

Socio-economic status and academic achievement Social barriers may prevent some people from making the most of their talents and abilities. One such barrier is socio-economic status (SES). Numerous studies¹ indicate that people who go furthest in school tend to come from families belonging to the highest SES groups. The relationship between SES and academic performance, however, is complex. To some extent it involves how conducive a child's environment is to learning: the availability of resources such as high quality day care, nutritious diets and greater opportunities for intellectual

¹ H. Ishida, W. Müller, J.M. Ridge, "Class origin, class destination, and education: A cross-national study of ten industrial nations," *American Journal of Sociology*, Vol. 101, No. 1, pp.145-193, 1995.

T. Siedule, "The influence of socio-economic background on education," Ottawa: Economic Council of Canada, Working Paper no. 34, 1992.



CANADIAN CST SOCIAL TRENDS BACKGROUNDER

Measuring socio-economic status

The NLSCY includes a composite measure of family socio-economic status (SES), providing an opportunity to explore the influence of SES on Canadian children's academic functioning. This measure combines family income, parents' occupations and parents' education to arrive at an overall indicator of SES. For this analysis, five equally sized groups (or quintiles) were created, each containing 20% of the children, according to their ranking in terms of family SES scores. Children whose families were in the top 20% of SES family scores are in the highest SES group, while those in the bottom 20% are in the lowest SES group.

stimulation can certainly influence a child's development. But it goes well beyond the availability of physical resources, as children's socialization also affects the likelihood they will do well in school.

Despite the existence of such barriers, children's outcomes are by no means predetermined: many children from low SES families perform well in school and many from advantaged backgrounds experience educational difficulties. In addition, previous research using data from the NLSCY suggests that in Canada, SES may have less of an impact on children's academic achievement than in other developed countries where differences between social classes may be greater. Further research is needed to examine precisely how children's socioeconomic background influences their academic performance. In the meantime, some simple observations of family SES and children's academic progress using NLSCY data are presented below.

Higher socio-economic status related to higher levels of academic achievement Children from the highest SES families were two to three times more likely to be rated by their teachers as being near the top of their class in reading, writing and mathematics, compared with children from the lowest SES families. Performance on a standardized mathematics computation test showed a similar pattern across socio-economic groups. In comparison with children from the 'lowest SES families, twice as many children from the highest SES families scored in the top 20% of all students on the math test.

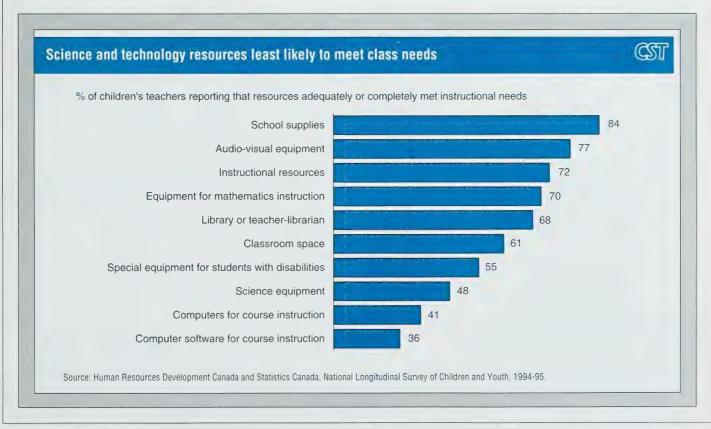
Many schools offer special education programs for students who have advanced artistic or intellectual capabilities (gifted programs) and for those students who have physical, emotional, intellectual or behavioural problems (remedial programs). In 1994-95, about 7% of children received some form of gifted education, while 10% of children received remedial education.

Children from low SES families were about three times more likely than those from high SES families to be in a remedial education program. Conversely, in comparison with children from low SES families, children from high SES families were nearly twice as likely to receive gifted education. Furthermore, although relatively few children overall had repeated a grade at some time during their schooling (about 4%), the rate for children from the lowest SES

families was about twice as high as the average.

Absenteeism and truancy not common problems Missing school with parental permission (absenteeism) and skipping school without authorization (truancy) may be associated with lower academic performance because when students are absent from school for any reason, they are missing the opportunity to learn. But they were not common problems among children aged 4 to 11. In fact, roughly one in every nine children (11%) had not missed any days during the school year due to absenteeism, and 50% had missed four days or less. A small proportion of children (4%), however, had missed 20 or more days of school — the equivalent of about one month. As for truancy, teachers reported that the vast majority of children (98%) had not skipped a single day of school.

The most common disciplinary problems encountered were verbal or physical conflicts, and groups of students harassing individual students. Twenty-eight percent of principals reported they "usually" or "always" had to discipline students for verbal conflicts, 11% for physical conflicts, and 5% for harassment by groups of students.





More serious disciplinary problems such as drug use, assaulting staff, carrying weapons and theft of staff belongings were rare. More than 95% of principals reported they "never" or only "rarely" had to deal with these problems in their schools. Analysis of serious disciplinary problems at the school level may become more relevant in future cycles of the NLSCY when the children enter high school.

Science and technology resources often lacking The instructional resources available in classrooms are issues of importance to parents, teachers, principals and children. For most types of materials and equipment, children's teachers felt that the resources in their classrooms adequately or completely met their needs. Less than half of teachers, however, reported that resources such as computers (41%), computer software (36%) and science equipment (48%) were adequate for course instruction. Given the importance of science and technology in contemporary society, this finding sug-

gests that some children may not have access to certain relevant instructional tools.

Summary. The results from the first cycle of the School Component of the NLSCY suggest that, with a few exceptions, children and their classrooms and schools are functioning well: parents are involved in their children's education: absenteeism and truancy are rare; schools are relatively free of serious disciplinary problems; and children's classrooms are adequately equipped. However, some children, many of them from low SES families, appear to experience some difficulties in school. As well, adequate instructional resources are not always available for certain subject areas. Understanding the education and development of children will deepen as subsequent cycles of the NLSCY follow these children into youth and adulthood.

• This article was adapted from "The National Longitudinal Survey of Children and Youth, 1994-95 — Initial Results

from the School Component." This document is available on the Internet at: http://www.statcan.ca/english/school/school.pdf.

• For more information on the National Longitudinal Survey of Children and Youth see *Growing up in Canada*, Statistics Canada and Human Resources Development Canada, Catalogue no. 89-550-MPE, 1996.

Garth Lipps is an analyst and **Jeffrey Frank** is a senior analyst with the Centre for Education Statistics, Statistics Canada.





EDUCATORS' NOTEBOOK

Suggestions for using Canadian Social Trends in the classroom

Lesson plan for "I Feel Overqualified for my Job..."

Objectives

- ☐ To develop skills in interpreting analytical information.
- ☐ To learn to assess how choices made today may have a long-term impact on future opportunities.

Method

- **1.** Develop a profile of the type of person who is most likely to feel overqualified for their job. Do the same for someone who is least likely to feel that way.
- 2. Identify some of the reasons why young people are more likely to feel overqualified for their jobs than older workers in their 30s and 40s.
- **3.** Discuss the expectations the students have about their working life. What do they believe would make a job most satisfying to them?
- **4.** Discuss the students' own plans for college or university. In light of the experiences of other young adults just beginning their careers, ask if the students think they will find a "fit" with the kinds of careers they hope to have after graduating.
- 5. Using E-STAT and the census databases, explore employment levels over the past ten years in high-skilled occupations such as engineering and natural science, teaching, health care, and other professions. Are employment levels growing? If so, how fast? Ask the class if they think there will be enough high-skilled jobs for them when they graduate from college or university.

Using other resources

☐ For educators with access to E-STAT, a related classroom lesson is available in the economics lesson section of the *Teachers' Handbook* or on the Statistics Canada web-site. The URL is http://www.statcan.ca/english/Estat96/estat/Pdf/classroom/economic.pdf (p.13.)



Share your ideas!

Do you have lessons using CST that you would like to share with other educators? Send us your lessons and we will ship you lessons using CST received from other educators. Also, the first ten educators who send in their comments on this column will receive one complimentary copy of a compendium of profiles on employment equity populations in Canada. For further information, contact Joel Yan, Dissemination Division, Statistics Canada, Ottawa K1A 0T6, 1-800-465-1222; fax: (613) 951-4513 or Internet e-mail: yanjoel@statcan.ca



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POPULATION								
Canada, July 1 (000s)	27,379.3	27,790.6	28,120.1	28,542.2	28,947.0	29,255.6 R	29,615.3 R	28,846.
Annual growth (%)	1.8	1.5	1.2	1.5	1,4	1.1 R	1.2	1.
mmigration ¹	178,152	202,979	219,250	241,810	265,405	234,457 F	215,470 R	208,79
Emigration ¹	40,395	39,760	43,692	45,633	43,993	44,807	45,949	47,23
AMILY								
Birth rate (per 1,000)	15.0	15.3	14.3	14.0	13.4	13.2	12.9	12.
Marriage rate (per 1,000)	7.0	6.8	6.1	5.8	5.5	5.5	5.4	5.
Divorce rate (per 1,000)	3.0	2.8	2.7	2.8	2.7	2.7	2.6	
amilies experiencing unemployment (000s)	808	879	1,096	1,184	1,198	1,130	1,044	1,0
ABOUR FORCE								
otal employment (000s)	13,086	13,165	12,916	12,842	13,015	13,292	13,506	13,6
goods sector (000s)	3,928	3,809	3,582	3,457	3,448	3,545	3,653	3,6
- service sector (000s)	9,158	9,356	9,334	9,385	9,567	9,746	9,852	9,9
otal unemployment (000s)	1,065	1,164	1,492	1,640	1,649	1,541	1,422	1,46
Inemployment rate (%)	7.5	8.1	10.4	11.3	11.2	10.4	9.5	Ç
Part-time employment (%)	16.6	17.0	18.1	18.5	19.1	18.8	18.6	18
Vomen's participation rate (%)	58.3	58.7	58.5	58.0	57.9	57.6	57.4	. 57
Inionization rate – % of paid workers	34.1	34.7	35.1	34.9	34.3	-	_	
NCOME								
Nedian family income	43,995	45,618	46,389	47,199	46,717	48,091	48,079	
of families with low income (1992 Base)	11.1	12.3	13.0	13.5	14.6	13.5	14.2	
Vomen's full-time earnings as a % of men's	66.0	67.7	69.6	71.9	72.2	69.8	73.1	
DUCATION								
Elementary and secondary enrolment (000s)	5,075.3	5,141.0	5,218.2	5,284.2	5,347.4 P	5,402.4 P	5,465.5 E	5511
ull-time postsecondary enrolment (000s)	831.8	856.6	903.1	931.0	951.1 P	964.7 E	961.2 ^E	961
Ooctoral degrees awarded	2,573	2,673	2,947	3,136	3,356	3,552	3,621 E	3,5
Government expenditure on education – as a $\%$ of GD	P 5.5	5.8	6.3	6.4	6.2	5.9	5.7	
HEALTH								
6 of deaths due to cardiovascular disease — men	39.1	37.3	37.1	37.1	37.0	36.3	36.0	
- womer	1 42.6	41.2	41.0	40.7	40.2	39.7 R	39.3	
√ of deaths due to cancer — men	27.2	27.8	28.1	28.4 R	27.9	28.3	30.3	29
- womer	26.4	26.8	27.0	27.3	26.9	27.0	27.3	27
overnment expenditure on health – as a % of GDP	5.9	6.2	6.7	6.8	6.7	6.2	6.1	
USTICE								
rime rates (per 100,000) - violent		970	1,056	1,077 R	1,072	1,038 R	995	9
- proper		5,593	6,141	5,868 R	5,524 R	5,212 R	5,235 R	5,1
– homici	de 2.4	2.4	2.7	2.6	2.2	2.0	2.0	2
GOVERNMENT								
xpenditures on social programmes ² (1995 \$000,00			190,745.5 R				208,494.6	
as a % of total expenditures	56.1 R	56.0 R		58.5 R	60.0 R	60.1	58.3	
as a % of GDP	23.0 R	24.5 R		28.8 R	29.4 R	28.2	26.9	
JI beneficiaries (000s)	3,025.2	3,261.0	3,663.0	3,658.0	3,415.5	3,086.2	2,910.0	0.500
DAS and OAS/GIS beneficiaries ^m (000s)	2,919.4	3,005.8	3,098.5	3,180.5	3,264.1	3,340.8	3,420.0	3,500
anada Assistance Plan beneficiaries ^m (000s)	1,856.1	1,930.1	2,282.2	2,723.0	2,975.0	3,100.2	3,070.9	
CONOMIC INDICATORS		0.0				4.4	0.0	
GDP (1986 \$) – annual % change	+2.4	-0.2	-1.8	+0.8	+2.2	+4.1	+2.3	+1
Annual inflation rate (%)	5.0	4.8	5.6	1.5	1.8	0.2	2.1	101.00
Jrban housing starts	183,323	150,620	130,094	140,126	129,988	127,346	89,526	101,80
Not available * Not yet available P Prelim P Final postcensal estimates PP Preliminary po For year ending June 30. Includes Protection of Persons and Property; Health; Social	stcensal estimates		^m Figures as lated postcensa Culture.		^{IR} Revised ^R Revised	d intercensal es data	timates ^F Final data	

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS KEEPING TRACK

Transit ridership down



Despite encouragement to take public transit, Canadians are using it less and less. In 1996, each Canadian took, on average, about 46 trips on some

form of urban transit, the lowest level since 1970, when the average was 43 trips per person. In contrast, Canadians were using mass transit at three times that rate at the end of the Second World War. For every \$1.00 in operating expenses in 1996, transit authorities collected only about \$0.55 in revenue from passenger fares. The last time revenues from fares routinely outpaced expenses was in the early 1960s.

Surface and marine transport service bulletin, Vol. 13, No.4 Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 50-002-XPB

Little interest in shorter work week among Canadians

According to the 1995 Survey of Work Arrangements, given the opportunity, a third of Canadian workers would opt for a change in the time they work each week. Most people would prefer longer hours with more pay, according to the 1995 Survey of Work Arrangements. Two-thirds of workers appeared satisfied with their current work hours, preferring to work the same hours for the same pay. However, 27% preferred to work more hours for more pay, compared with only about 6% who wanted a shorter work week with less pay.

Working more? Working less? What do Canadian Workers Prefer? Statistics Canada, Product no. 11F0019MPE

Depression: an undertreated disorder



In 1994, an estimated 6% of Canadians aged 18 and over — 1.1 million adults — experienced a Major Depressive Episode (MDE). Less than half of these

people (43%) reported talking to a health professional about their emotional or mental health. Furthermore, only 26% of those who had an MDE consulted a professional four or more times regarding the condition.

Depression that was not chronic was more likely to remain untreated. In addition, MDE sufferers whose physical health was good and those who had not recently experienced a negative life event were less likely to be treated. Low educational attainment and inadequate income also seemed to act as barriers to treatment. Also, men and married people were less likely to receive treatment.

Health Reports, Spring 1997, Vol. 8, No. 4 Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 82-003-XPB

Job sharing an option for some



Job sharing has become a viable option for certain workers wishing to work part-time in full-time positions. Job sharers, most of whom were women

(84%), represented 171,000 or 8% of part-time paid workers in 1995. As a whole, they were older than other part-timers, better educated and more likely to work in professional occupations.

One in four job sharers filled teaching or nursing positions, compared with one in seven regular part-timers. Half of job sharers were parents with children at home, compared with 35% of regular part-timers. Shared jobs were more likely to be permanent and unionized (81% and 36%, respectively) than were regular part-time positions (71% and 23%). They were also likely to offer more benefits and higher-than-average hourly pay.

Perspectives on Labour and Income, Summer 1997, Vol. 9, No. 2 Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 75-001-XPE

Breast cancer deaths down



In 1995, breast cancer mortality rates reached their lowest levels in more than four decades. In 1995, 28.4 in every 100,000 females of all ages died of breast cancer,

down from 31.3 in 1990. Between 1986 and 1995, statistically significant decreases in breast cancer mortality rates occurred in all age groups from 30 to 69. In 1995, 57.4 women in every 100,000 in their fifties died of breast cancer, down from 62.4 in 1990. Similarly, 80.4 women in every 100,000 in their sixties died of breast cancer in 1995, down substantially from 103.5 in 1990.

Health Reports, Summer 1997, Vol. 9, No.1 Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 82-003-XPB

Death most common in winter and on Saturday



In 1995, there were 210,733 deaths in Canada, an average of 17,561 per month and 577 per day. More deaths happen in some months than in others. Above-average

numbers of deaths occurred in December, January, February and March (parallelling the elevated incidence of pneumonia and influenza in the winter months). The number of deaths between June and October were well below the monthly average. Adjusting for the number of days in each month, the average daily number of deaths peaked in February at 635 and fell to a low of 529 in August. Not only are deaths more likely to occur in some seasons than in others, but some days of the week tend to be especially hazardous. Between 1974 and 1994, the highest average daily number of deaths occurred on Saturday, and the lowest on Thursday.

Health Reports, Summer 1997, Vol. 9, No.1 Statistics Canada, Catalogue no. 82-003-XPB

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